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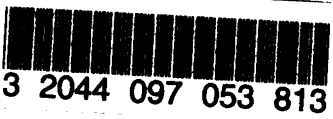
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MISTAKES

IN

WRITING ENGLISH,

AND HOW TO AVOID THEM.

FOR THE USE OF ALL WHO TEACH, WRITE, OR SPEAK THE LANGUAGE.

BY

MARSHALL T. BIGELOW,

AUTHOR OF "PUNCTUATION, AND OTHER TYPOGRAPHICAL MATTERS."

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PREFACE.

A WRITER in Blackwood once said that, "with the exception of Wordsworth, there is not one celebrated author of this day who has written two pages consecutively without some flagrant impropriety in the grammar." This may have been an exaggerated statement, nevertheless it is very near the truth in reference to the present time.

While mere slavish following of the rules of grammar does not necessarily constitute elegant English, and while all great writers have peculiarities of their own, it must be admitted that no writer, however brilliant, should be excused for grammatical errors that might be avoided.

It may be a sufficient reason for publishing another work on a subject on which so much has been written, to say that the object of it is entirely different from that of most works which have appeared within recent years, which seem to have been written

mainly for the purpose of picking every flaw possible in the author criticised.

It is hoped that this work may be of use to the teacher or scholar, by pointing out, in an orderly arrangement, the errors to which the best writers of English are liable. It is so arranged that any particular subject may readily be found, and is so brief that a full knowledge of all the points treated may be easily acquired. No space has been wasted on mere vulgarisms which every one with any claim to education is supposed to know and avoid, but such errors as my experience has shown to be common to all authors have received particular attention.

A large number of the ungrammatical sentences given were observed in proof-reading, and were corrected by their writers before the works in which they occurred were published. Others have been appropriated from any source whenever they served my purpose. It must be borne in mind, that, in the correction of erroneous sentences, the main object is clearly to show the error; and in merely correcting the grammar, the sentence may often be left inelegant, and in many cases should undoubtedly be entirely reconstructed.

In the examples cited, all the words printed in *Italics* are either ungrammatical, tautological, or super-

fluous. The words inserted in brackets are to take the place of the preceding Italic words, or are necessarily added to make the sentence correct.

Where an author's name is given for an erroneous sentence, it is done for the purpose of showing that the best writers are not infallible, — not even those who are considered standard authorities in matters relating to grammar.

The grammatical errors in the language of the Bible and of Shakespeare are not pointed out with any idea that they ought to be corrected, but to show that in writing modern English we are not to follow archaic forms.

The short chapter entitled "Construction of Sentences" might lead one to expect more than is there given; but as that is precisely the matter to which it relates, it is so entitled, though a thorough treatment of the subject would of itself require a volume.

In the Appendix are given rules for the formation of the plural, in which I have ventured to propose a change which simplifies this matter very much, and which I have no doubt will be generally approved, as in the line of true spelling reform. I have also given some rules as to compound words, together with remarks on some typographical matters with which authors ought to be acquainted.

Besides the Grammars of Murray, Goold Brown, Professors Whitney and Tweed, and others, I have made frequent use of Prof. A. S. Hill's "Principles of Rhetoric," Prof. A. P. Peabody's "Conversation, its Faults and its Graces," the various publications of Mr. Richard Grant White, and Professor Mathews's "Words, their Use and Abuse," and to all these works I am greatly indebted.

M. T. BIGELOW.

CAMBRIDGE, October 5, 1886.

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MISTAKES

IN WRITING ENGLISH.

CHAPTER I.

USES OF THE ARTICLE.

§ 1. *A* or *an* is the indefinite article, and cannot be used with a plural noun. It can be used, however, before a noun of multitude; as, "an army," "a hundred," "a fleet," etc.; and also with a plural signification in phrases like "many a man," "many a gem," "many a flower," etc.

§ 2. *A* is used before all words beginning with a consonant, or a consonant *sound; an*, before all words beginning with a true vowel or a silent *h;* as, "a man," "a woman," "a youth," "a European," "a unit," "such a one," "a harpoon," "a harangue," "a hypocritical"; "an angel," "an Indian," "an hour," "an honest." The words *unit, European*, really begin with the consonant sound of *y*, and *one* begins with the sound of *w;* they therefore require *a*, and not *an*, which is often erroneously used before these and other words beginning with similar combinations.

There is an exception to the rule for the use of *a* before a consonant as to words beginning with *h*, of

more than two syllables, which have either a primary or a secondary accent on the *second* syllable, in which case *an* is used; as, "an historian," "an historiographer," "an harpooner," "an hypothesis."[1]

§ 3. The definite article *the* may be used before any noun, whether singular or plural, except abstract terms, or names of virtues, vices, or sciences.

§ 4. The omission of the article where it should be used is very common; as,

"The metaphorical and [the] literal meaning of words should be distinguished."

"But the French pilfered from both the Greek and [the] Latin."

"A red and [a] blue star may produce photographic images of equal intensity."

"The president and [the] secretary were elected."

"The indebtedness of the English to the French, [the] Latin, and [the] Greek is disclosed in almost every sentence."

"These terms are uttered by the artist, the mechanic, and [the] husbandman."

"Nouns in the English language have three cases; the nominative, [the] possessive, and [the] objective."

"'The treasurer and secretary' means one person who holds two offices; 'the treasurer and the secretary' means two officers. 'A black and white dog' means one parti-colored animal; 'a black and a white dog' means two dogs, one black and one white. 'The

---

[1] Worcester's rule for the use of *an* before *h* is defective, as well as Webster's; and each of them violates his own rule. Worcester says that *an* should be used before all words beginning with *h* which are accented on the second syllable; Webster, that it should be used before all words beginning with *h* which are accented on any syllable but the first. Yet both write, very properly, "a hotel," "a harpoon," and Worcester even gives "*a harpooner*," which is wrong according to either rule.

honest and intelligent' are those who are both honest and intelligent; 'the honest and the intelligent' are two classes: one, composed of those who are honest; the other, of those who are intelligent. The following sentence is therefore defective: 'The council *and* [the] *synod* maintained that the unity of the person implied not any unity in the consciousness.' The context shows that the council was one body, the synod another."[1]

§ 5. Whenever the present participle is followed immediately by *of*, it should be preceded by the definite article; as,

"It is [the] drawing of a conclusion which was before unknown or dark."

"Prompted by extreme vanity, he persisted in [the] writing of bad verses."

"In [the] framing of his sentences he was very exact."

"From [the] calling of names he proceeded to blows."

But if the article and the *of* are both omitted, these sentences will be equally correct.

§ 6. Articles are also often inserted erroneously, as in the following examples:—

"That is the kind of *a* man of whom we are speaking."

"What sort of *a* charm do they possess?"

"What species of *a* reptile is this?"

"Men to whom this kind of *an* organization has been given generally have active minds." — Ayres, *Verbalist*, p. 192.

"He is entitled to the appellation of *a* gentleman."

"The one styled *the* Mufti is the head of the ministers of law and religion."

"He was a better mathematician than *a* linguist."

The article should not be used between the possessive case and the noun which it governs; as,

---

[1] Hill's Principles of Rhetoric, p. 104.

"Prescott's '*The* Conquest of Mexico,' and his '*The* Conquest of Peru.'"

"Howells's '*A* Chance Acquaintance.'"

"Cushing's '*A* Year in Spain.'"

This is equivalent to saying "his the book." The foregoing examples are all wrong, and the Italicized articles should be omitted in all the examples in this section.

§ 7. The definite and the indefinite article are sometimes improperly used together; as,

"*An* [the] eagle is the emblem of the United States."

"A diphthong is *the* [a] combination of two vowels in one syllable."

§ 8. Where two or more adjectives qualify the same noun, the article must precede each adjective if the noun is put in the singular, but only the first if the noun is made plural; as,

"The nominative and the objective case."

"The nominative and objective cases."

But a plural verb must be used in either case, as the noun is to be understood after each adjective; as,

"In a sonnet, the first, the fourth, the fifth, and the eighth line usually rhyme; so do the second, third, sixth, and seventh lines, the ninth, eleventh, and thirteenth lines, and the tenth, twelfth, and fourteenth lines."

"The Old and the New Testament are both believed by Christians generally to be inspired."

CHAPTER II.

THE NOMINATIVE CASE AND THE VERB.

§ 9. The noun or pronoun which is the subject of a sentence, or the nominative, always governs the verb, both in number and person. Very common violations of this rule in conversation are the use of "You *was*," for "You were," and of "He *don't*," for "He does n't." The rule is often carelessly violated in writing, although in many cases it is difficult to determine the actual nominative. The following are examples of incorrect usage:—

"The steamer, with the crew and passengers, *were* [was] lost."

"What *signifies* [signify] good opinions, when our practice is bad?"

"In piety and virtue *consist* [consists] the happiness of man."

"A conformity of opinions and qualities *prepare* [prepares] us for friendship."

"Day after day *pass* [passes] away."

"The Legislature, with the Governor; *decide* [decides] how the State taxes shall be expended."

"The whole scope of these provisions *show* [shows] what the object of the Legislature was."

"Nothing less than murders, rapine, and conflagrations *employ* [employs] their thoughts."

"One economist after another *have* [has] protested against some one or other of the articles of the old Ricardian creed."

"The second book of the Æneid is one of the greatest masterpieces that ever *was* [were] executed by any hand."

"This letter is one of the best that *has* [have] been written about Lord Byron."

"To these precepts *are* [is] subjoined a copious selection of rules and maxims."

"The *authority* of Addison in matters of grammar, of Bentley, who never made the English grammar his study, of Bolingbroke, Pope, and others, *are* [is] nothing." — Harrison, *The English Language.*

"The conduct of the Administration towards the Colonies, and of the Commissioners at Boston, *were* [was] warmly attacked."

Better, perhaps, "The conduct of the Administration towards the Colonies, as well as that of the Commissioners at Boston, was warmly attacked."

Or, "The conduct of the Administration towards the Colonies, and that of the Commissioners at Boston, were warmly attacked."

"That moment the world, *and* its false standards and prizes, *recedes* and *falls* into *its* place."

Correct as follows: "That moment the world, with its false standards and prizes, recedes and falls into its place."

§ 10. Two or more nouns or pronouns in the singular number, in the nominative case, or two or more clauses, whether connected by *and* or without any connecting particle, require a plural verb. As,

"Art, empire, earth itself, to change are doomed."

"Reason, virtue, answer one great aim."

"Virtue, honor, even self-interest, conspire to recommend the measure."

"Patriotism, morality, every public and private consideration, demand our submission to lawful government."

The following examples are therefore erroneous: —

"Tranquillity and peace *dwells* [dwell] there."

"By whose power all good and evil *is* [are] distributed."

"For woman's fear and love *holds* [hold] quantity." — *Hamlet.*

"Man, woman too, *craves* [crave] life, and life is action, feeling, variety."

"The purpose and the only direct effect of the evidence *is* [are] to show that the witness is not to be believed."

"The letter and the spirit of the statute *is* [are] defeated."

§ 11. When two or more nominatives stand for the same person or subject, the verb governed must be in the singular; as,

"This prodigy of learning, this scholar, critic, and antiquary, was entirely destitute of breeding and civility."

"The philosopher and poet was banished from his country."

"Such a Saviour and Redeemer is actually provided for us."

"Whose icy current and compulsive course
Ne'er feels retiring ebb, but keeps due on."

"The said deed and conveyance is now recorded in the registry of deeds, and at the time said deed and conveyance was recorded," etc.

"Truth, and truth only, is worth seeking for its own sake."

"In this mutual influence there is a wisdom, a wonderful wisdom, which we cannot fathom."

"This self-command, this exertion of reason in the midst of passion, has a wonderful effect, both to please and to persuade."

"A purpose, a design, an intention, is evident in everything."

"You create a fastidiousness, a craving for the ideal, which compels many of the sons of rank and fortune to become weary wanderers in foreign lands."

§ 12. Where two or more nominatives, whether connected by *and* or unconnected, are qualified by *every*, *each*, *no*, or *not*, the verb must be singular; as,

"Every man, woman, and child knows this to be so."

"Each soldier, seaman, and officer receives his allotted share."

"No glaring chalk, no grim sandstone, no rugged flint, *outface* [outfaces] it."

"Not a bird and not a beast, not a tree and not a shrub, was to be seen."

§ 13. Where two or more singular nominatives are separated by *or*, *nor*, *as well as*, or other disjunctive, the verb must be in the singular; as,

"The Principia of Newton, or the Mécanique Céleste of Laplace, *were* [was] not the outcome of any thought whatever."

"Not a weed nor a blade of grass *were* [was] to be seen."

"Prescott as well as Ticknor *make* [makes] this statement."

"Nor eye, nor listening ear, an object *find* [finds]."
"Neither character nor dialogue *were* [was] yet understood."
"No monstrous height, or breadth, or length *appear* [appears]."
"Either one or the other of them *are* [is] in the wrong."

§ 14. But where either of two or more nominatives separated by a disjunctive, as in the foregoing section, is plural, the verb should also be plural. The following sentences are incorrect: —

"Neither riches nor poverty *affects* [affect] a man's happiness."

"It is not his exceptional beauty, or gifts, or culture, that *gives* [give] him this distinction."

"In case of the death of any such children, the share or shares of such deceased children *is* [are] to be divided among his or her brothers and sisters."

"They fawn upon every one whose *faults* or negligence *interrupts* or *retards* their lessons." (Change *faults* to *fault*, and the sentence is correct.)

"An example or two *is* [are] sufficient to illustrate the general observation."

"The entire mass remains undisturbed except where erosion, earthquakes, or the hand of man, *has* [have] mutilated it."[1]

§ 15. A word in the singular number indicating many persons or things, called a collective noun or

---

[1] Some grammarians say, that, in cases where a singular and a plural nominative are separated by a disjunctive, the verb must agree with the nominative nearest to it; as, "Neither the servants nor the master *is* respected;" "Neither the writings nor the author *is* in existence."

Goold Brown says, further, "But where the remoter nominative is the principal word, and the nearer is expressed parenthetically, the verb agrees literally with the former, and only by implication with the latter," and cites the following examples: "One example or ten *says* nothing against it" (Leigh Hunt); "A parenthesis, or brackets, *consists* of two angular strokes, or hooks, enclosing one or more words." I think, however, that all such sentences are ungrammatical.

noun of multitude, or a word indicating a portion of such a noun, requires a plural verb or pronoun where the idea of plurality is conveyed. As,

"The troop which followed Crastinus were volunteers."

"Dana believes that a part of the Achæan rocks are fossiliferous."

"The greater part of philosophers have acknowledged the excellence of this government."

"A number of men and women were present."

The following sentences are therefore incorrect: —

"The assembly *was* [were] divided in *its* [their] sentiments."

"A portion of the assembly *was* [were] opposed to the measure."

"By not attending to this rule many errors have been committed, a number of which *is* [are] subjoined, as a further caution and direction to the learner." — *Murray's Grammar*, Rule XX.

"Yet a potent fraction of the noblesse *was* [were] also of the new faith."

"Butler, in his History, mentions the fact that there *was* [were] a large number of persons of that name in the town."

But where the idea of the collective noun is singular, a singular verb must be used. As,

"The troop which followed Crastinus was made up of volunteers."

"The court of Rome *were* [was] not without solicitude."

"The House of Lords *were* [was] much influenced by these reasons."

"An army of many thousands *were* [was] assembled."

§ 16. The intransitive verb *to be* having the nominative case after the verb as well as before it, where one nominative is singular, and the other is plural, or consists of two or more singular nouns, or two or more clauses, the nominative preceding or following the verb may govern it, according to the more natural meaning,

or to the more immediate proximity of the verb, as follows: —

"The wages of sin is death."

"Whatever we have, and whatever we are, above the level of barbarism, is a matter of growth."

"To be moderate in our views, and to proceed temperately in the pursuit of them, *are* [is] the best way to insure success."

"To do justly, to love mercy, and to walk humbly with God, *is a duty* [are duties] of universal obligation."

"An offer to sell and actually selling is but one offence."

"The only objection to the present halls *is* [are] the cross lights which fall upon some of the wall cases."

"This dwelling-house and the land under it is the property sought to be divided."

"His illness was pleurisy and rheumatism."

§ 17. A sum of money, in the plural form, is usually followed by a singular verb; as,

"Twenty dollars was subscribed by him."

"Fifty thousand pounds was lost in this speculation."

"Three hundred thousand dollars is to constitute the capital of the company."

The title of a book in the plural number should be followed by a singular verb. As,

"Dr. Holmes's 'American Annals' was published at Cambridge, in 1805."

"Mrs. Jameson's 'Memoirs of the Early Italian Painters' comprises upwards of thirty biographies."

§ 18. Several words in English which are plural in form are used in the singular number, and with a singular verb. Such are the names of sciences ending in *ics*, as *ethics, mathematics, hydraulics, optics*, etc.; also *news, means* as an instrument or object by which to attain an end or purpose, and *pains* in the sense of toilsome effort or severe labor.[1]

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[1] See *infra*, page 49.

The word *whereabouts* as a noun is often erroneously used in newspapers with a plural verb; as,

"The whereabouts of the child *were* [was] unknown to him."

Acquaintance is a better form for the plural than *acquaintances;* and *folk* is better than *folks.* As,

"And they sought him among their kinsfolk and acquaintance." — *Luke* ii. 44.

"Behold two thirds of our company safe at home, telling their strange adventures to relatives and acquaintance."

"As the words *cherubim* and *seraphim* are plurals, the terms *cherubims* and *seraphims,* as expressing the plural, are quite improper." [1]

The plural *effluvia* is often used as if singular; as, "*a* disagreeable *effluvia.*"

Mussulmen is often used for the proper plural *Mussulmans.* [2]

The titles Mr., Mrs., and Miss in the plural are respectively Messieurs, Mesdames, and Misses; as, Messieurs Rothschild, Mesdames Barrett and Thompson, Misses Smith. The surname should never be made plural after a title.

§ 19. A very common error in writing a decimal number is to use the plural after it; as, .0048 grains, .025 miles, .38 yards. This is wrong, as any decimal number, no matter of how many or how few figures it consists, is less than the whole number one, and therefore cannot be plural. The above expressions mean 48 ten-thousandths of a grain; 25 thousandths of a mile; 38 hundredths of a yard; and consequently the singular number should be used in all three cases, — grain, mile, yard.

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[1] Dr. Campbell's Philosophy of Rhetoric.

[2] For the formation of the plural, see Appendix I.

§ 20. The words *alternative* and *dilemma* in their correct use must be in the singular number, as each of these words indicates a position in which one of two things, and of two only, can be done or can happen. The following examples of the use of *alternative* are contrary to the true signification.

"Not a mouthful of food was left, and the *alternatives* [alternative] now before us *were* [was] a twelve-mile paddle or no supper."

"Unless the reference is credited as inconsistent with the preceding statement, we are driven to the only *other* alternative."

"An argument which presents an antagonist with *two or more alternatives*, but is equally conclusive against him, whichever alternative he chooses." — *Webster's Dictionary*, under *Dilemma*.

"Mr. Gladstone's manifesto does not offer a single argument to prove that coercion is the *only* alternative policy to home rule for Ireland. Mr. Chamberlain gave *one* alternative *other* than coercion, and Mr. John Morley suggested a *fourth*, by admitting that it was possible to govern Ireland as a Crown colony. . . . It must be made clear that there is *another* alternative, namely, to give Ireland local control of her local affairs." — *London Times*, June 14, 1886 (cable despatch).

The expression "either horn of the dilemma" is frequently seen, showing the true signification of the word. The following example shows the correct usage: —

"A strong dilemma in a desperate case,
To act with infamy or quit the place." — Swift.

CHAPTER III.

THE POSSESSIVE CASE.

§ 21. All nouns in the *singular* number, and all nouns in the plural ending with any other letter than *s*, form the possessive case by the addition of the apostrophe and the letter *s;* as, man's, men's, child's, children's, Charles's, Felix's, Hastings's, witness's, duchess's. When the singular noun ends in *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, *ce*, *se*, or *x*, the addition of the possessive apostrophe and *s* makes another syllable; as, James's, countess's, Mackintosh's, church's, justice's, horse's, fox's. It is therefore just as proper to omit the plural *es* in *Charleses*, *countesses*, *horses*, *boxes*, *justices*, or *churches*, as to omit the *'s* in the possessive cases above given, or in any proper name ending either with *s* or any other of the letters or digraphs mentioned.

The only exceptions to this rule are that in poetry the additional *s* may be elided for the sake of the meter; and that a few phrases, like "for righteousness' sake," "for conscience' sake," "for goodness' sake," "for Jesus' sake," have become from long usage established as idioms. The following examples are consequently erroneous, and require the addition of *s* after the apostrophe.

"Moses' minister."
"Phinehas' wife."
"Festus came into Felix' room."
"These answers were made to the witness' questions."

"A large company attended the countess' party."
"The administratrix' sale."
"Burns' Poems."
"Mr. James' novel of Philip Augustus."

§ 22. All *plural* nouns ending in *s* form the possessive by the addition simply of an apostrophe after the *s;* as, boys', horses', Jameses', countesses', foxes', churches'.

§ 23. Personal pronouns in the possessive case never take the apostrophe, but are written *hers, its, ours, yours, theirs.* The indefinite pronouns *one* and *other,* however, form the possessive in the same way with nouns; as,

"One is apt to lose one's self."
"Your little hands were never made
To tear each other's eyes."
"Shine with such lustre as the tear that flows
Down Virtue's manly cheek for others' woes."

§ 24. Where two or more nouns in the possessive case are connected by *and,* and refer to the same noun, the sign of the possessive is annexed to the last one only; as,

"John and Eliza's books."
"This was my father, mother, and uncle's advice."
"Men, women, and children's shoes for sale here."
"The Farmers and Mechanics' Bank."
"Henry and William's teacher is a man of more learning than James's or Andrew's."

But where a disjunctive word or words are used, the sign must be annexed to each word; as,

"They are John's or Eliza's books."
"She had the physician's, the surgeon's, as well as the apothecary's assistance."
"They relieve neither the boy's nor the girl's distress."
"Without any impediment but his own, his parents', or his guardian's will."

Where two nouns are in apposition, or constitute a title, the possessive sign is annexed to the last; as,

"For David my servant's sake."
"Give me John the Baptist's head."
"It is the Queen of England's prerogative."
"The Mayor of Boston's address."

§ 25. In some cases, having a peculiar signification, the possessive sign may be used after the objective case and the possessive *of;* as,

"It was a discovery of Dr. Franklin's."
"This picture of my friend's."
"A subject of the emperor's."
"A friend of General Grant's."

Meaning,

"It was one of Dr. Franklin's discoveries."
"This picture belonging to my friend."
"One of the emperor's subjects."
"One of General Grant's friends."

§ 26. The sign of the possessive is often omitted in cases like the following:—

"A photographic lens of seven *inches* aperture and thirty-seven *inches* focus was procured."
"They arrived weary and fatigued after a twenty *miles* walk."

Either the apostrophe should be used in these cases, or the expression varied so as to put the Italicized words in the objective case.

§ 27. *Anybody else's* is often seen in print; it should be "anybody's else." We might as well say, "any bird else's nest," "any boy else's hat," etc.

For the incorrect use of the article before the possessive case, see *ante*, pages 11, 12.

The use of the possessive before the participle is shown *infra*, pages 45, 46.

CHAPTER IV.

THE OBJECTIVE CASE.

§ 28. Errors in the case of the pronoun are often made which cannot occur in the noun, the nominative and objective cases in pronouns having different forms. E. g.: —

"Through the ensuing dialogue, those two, no matter who spoke, or *whom* [who] was addressed, looked at each other." — Dickens.

"Let the sea roar, and the fulness thereof; the world, and *they* [them] that dwell therein." — *Psalm* xcviii. 7.

"This life has joys for you and *I* [me],
And joys that riches ne'er could buy." — Burns.

"It was not the work of so eminent an author as *him* [he] to whom it was imputed."

"For the benefit of those *whom* [who] he thought were his friends."

"*Who* [whom] should I see but my old friend!"

"*Thou* [Thee], Nature, partial Nature, I arraign." — Burns.

"Between you and *I* [me]."

"He can read better than *me* [I]."

"It was *him* [he]."

"*Whom* [who] do you think I am?"

"*Who* [whom] do you take me for?"

"I saw a lady whom I supposed to be *she* [her]."

"It might have been *him* [he] who did it."

"Let *he* [him] who made thee answer that." — Byron.

"Let *they* [them] who raise the spell beware the fiend."

It must be remembered that the neuter verb has the same case after as before it, and that the imperative mood requires the objective case after it.

CHAPTER V.

PRONOUN AND ANTECEDENT.

§ 29. A pronoun must agree with its antecedent in gender, number, and person. Consequently a plural pronoun cannot agree with a singular antecedent, nor a singular pronoun with a plural antecedent. The following examples are accordingly incorrect: —

"No one will answer, as if I were *their* [his] friend or companion."

"Everybody nowadays publishes memoirs; everybody has recollections which *they think* [he thinks] worthy of recording."

"Every Colony has such peculiarities of *their* [its] own that *they are* [it is] so fond of, that, if we had numbers and wealth sufficient, the Colonies would never unite."

"There is flat contradiction here between the narrative of the Jesuit and *those* of contemporary English writers." (Put *the narratives* for *those*.)

"The Council suggest that the action of the New York Society be imitated by *those* [the Societies] of Boston and Baltimore."

"But if a customer wishes you to injure *their* [his] foot, or to disfigure it, you are to refuse *their* [his] pleasure." — Ruskin.

"She studied his countenance like an inscription, and deciphered each rapt expression that crossed it, and stored *them* [it] in her memory."

§ 30. "There should not be a mixture of 'thou' and 'you' in the same passage. Thus Thackeray: 'So, as *thy* sun rises over the humble house-tops round about *your* home, shall *you* wake many a day to duty and labor.' So Cooper: '*Thou* hast both master and

mistress: *you* have told us of the latter, but we would know something of the former. Who is *thy* master?'"[1]

§ 31. Where the antecedent consists of two or more nouns in the singular number, whether connected by *and* or not, the pronoun must be in the plural. As,

"Did ever Proteus, Merlin, any witch,
Transform themselves so strangely as the rich?"

"Faith, justice, heaven itself, now quit their hold."

"Both minister and magistrate are compelled to choose between *his* [their] duty and *his* [their] reputation."

"Such uncommon generosity and goodness *was* [were] in *its* [their] nature liable to misconstruction, and we accordingly find *it has* [they have] been misconstrued."

But where the two or more nouns constituting the antecedent refer to the same person or subject, the pronoun must be singular. As,

"This great philosopher and statesman continued in public life till his eightieth year."

"The said deed and conveyance is now recorded in the registry of deeds, and at the time it was recorded," etc.

§ 32. A plural antecedent, or one consisting of two or more nouns, if qualified by *each*, *every*, *no*, or *not*, requires a pronoun in the singular.

"Each of them, in *their* [his] turn, received the reward to which *they were* [he was] entitled."

"Every plant and every tree produces others after *their* [its] kind."

"Both sisters were uncomfortable; each felt for the other, and of course for *themselves* [herself]."

"No policeman, no employee, and no citizen dared to lift *their* [his] hand."

"Not an officer, not a soldier, and not a camp-follower escaped permanent injury to *their* [his] health."

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[1] Bain's Composition Grammar.

§ 33. Where an antecedent consists of two or more nouns separated by *or*, *nor*, *as well as*, or any other disjunctive, the pronoun must be singular. As,

"When you press a watch, or pull a clock, *they answer* [it answers] your question with precision."

"Neither Venice nor Genoa *retain* [retains] the rank *they* [it] once held."

"There is no evidence that either Charles I. or Charles II. deemed it worth *their* [his] while to consult the happiness of *their* [his] subjects."

"When do we ever find a well-educated Englishman or Frenchman embarrassed by an ignorance of the grammar of *their* [his] respective *languages? They* first learn it practically and unerringly; and then if *they* chose [choose] to look back and smile at the idea of having proceeded by a number of rules, without knowing one of them by heart, or being conscious that *they* had any rule at all, this is a philosophical amusement; but who ever thinks of learning the grammar of *their* [his] own tongue before *they are* [he is a] very good *grammarians* [grammarian]?" — Sydney Smith.

§ 34. Where an antecedent is a collective noun, or noun of multitude, the pronoun must be plural or singular according to the sense intended to be conveyed. In many cases, either the singular or plural may be employed, but both cannot properly be used together. A report of a committee is hardly ever made without violation of this rule. E. g.: —

"A board of selectmen *are* [is] not required to keep records, and *their* [its] clerk, if *they appoint* [it appoints] one, is not a certifying officer."

"The Council *desire*, in the name of the Institute, to express *its* [their] gratitude to the individual subscribers for their generous gifts."

"If the investing committee *leaves* to an officer, in violation of the duty imposed upon *them* [it], the authority to make investments," etc.

§ 35. The use of a pronoun without any properly expressed antecedent is a very common error; as,

"I desired him to postpone the formality of a resignation till I should return to America; *which* was then, and has been ever since, expected to take place very soon." For "I should return," read *my return.*

"Nor will anything further than the preparations I have mentioned be resolved upon before Parliament meets, *which* is now fixed for the 4th of January." For "Parliament meets," read *the meeting of Parliament.*

"The man opposed me, *which* was anticipated."

"Be attentive, without *which* you will learn nothing."

"A tremendous fall of snow rendered his departure impossible for more than ten days. When the roads began to become a little practicable, *they* successively received news of the retreat of the Chevalier into Scotland, then that he had abandoned the frontiers," etc.

In this quotation from Scott's "Waverley," the *his* in the first sentence correctly refers to Waverley in the preceding sentence; the *he* in the last clause stands correctly for the Chevalier; but *they* has no antecedent whatever. Read *news was successively received,* for "*they* successively received news."

"When Germanicus proposed to Tiberius to subjugate Germany, he was right, and the Emperor was wrong in opposing *it.*" Here *it* has no antecedent; change "to subjugate" to *the subjugation of.*

"The purchaser filled the blank in the certificate, and sent it to the corporation, demanding that the transfer be recorded and a new certificate be issued, *which* was refused." For "demanding," read *with a demand.*

"Governor Winthrop tells us of visiting Agawam, and spending the Sabbath with *them* [whom?], as *they* were without a minister."

§ 36. Sentences are often so constructed that the antecedent of a pronoun is doubtful, or so that the

pronoun grammatically refers to an antecedent not intended by the writer. As,

"He [i. e. Philip] wrote to that distinguished philosopher [i. e. Aristotle] in terms polite and flattering, begging of him to come and undertake *his* [Alexander's] education, and bestow on *him* those useful lessons of magnanimity and virtue which every man ought to possess, and which *his* [i. e. Philip's] numerous associations rendered impossible for *him* [Philip]." — Goldsmith, *History of Greece.*

"Montcalm had passed a troubled night. . . . Troops lined the intrenchments till day, while the General walked the field that adjoined his head-quarters till one in the morning, accompanied by the Chevalier Johnstone and Colonel Poulariez. Johnstone says that *he* [Montcalm] was in great agitation, and took no rest all night. At daybreak he heard the sound of cannon," etc.

Here *he* grammatically refers to Johnstone, though it is evidently intended to stand for Montcalm.

"Mr. Smith consulted the spirits, and they rapped out the answer that he must make the best settlement he could with Mr. Ingalls, or he would infallibly lose all his fine estate, — not only that which Mr. Ingalls had originally held, and which *he* [Mr. Smith] had obtained for almost nothing from the heirs of Benjamin Parsons, — but also the adjoining parcel, for which he had paid its full value."

Here the Italicized *he* grammatically refers to Mr. Ingalls, and would be so understood by the reader taking the sentence by itself; but from the whole article in which the sentence appears, it is evident that *he* is meant to refer to Mr. Smith.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

§ 37. Where a *future* contingency, or doubt or indecision, or a wish, is expressed, the verb should be in the subjunctive mood; as,

"On condition that he *comes* [come], I will consent to stay."

"We may live happily, though our possessions *are* [be] small."

"And so would I, if I *was* [were] he."

"A certain lady whom I could name if it *was* [were] necessary."

"He will not be pardoned, unless he *repents* [repent]."

"The word 'heirs' appears to have been used by the testator as if it *was* [were] a general word."

"I wish that he were here."

"Would that it might be so!"

But where a conditional circumstance which is not future is expressed, the verb should be in the indicative; as,

"If he *know* [knows] the way, he does not need a guide."

"If art *become* [becomes] apparent, it disgusts the reader."

"Whether the translation *were* [was] ever published, I am wholly ignorant."

"If a man *have* [has] built a house, the house is his."

§ 38. The verb in connected clauses should not be put in different moods; as,

"If there be but one body of legislators, it *is* [will be] no better than a tyranny; if there *are* [be] only two, there will want a casting voice."

"But if it climb, with your assisting hands,
The Trojan walls, and in the city *stands*."

Dryden's *Virgil.*

CHAPTER VII.

THE INFINITIVE MOOD.

§ 39. The particle *to*, as the sign of the infinitive mood, is often improperly omitted; as,

"It is necessary to act with more vigor or with greater moderation, — to conciliate them completely, or [to] subdue them altogether."

"Please [to] insert points so as to make sense."

"But it would tend to obscure, rather than [to] elucidate the subject."

"So as neither to embarrass nor [to] weaken the sentence."

"He was made [to] believe that neither the king's death nor imprisonment would help him."

"It is necessary for the lawyer to have a clear conception of the governing rules of law, and [to] be able to present decisive authority or [to] give satisfactory reasons for establishing the rules."

The sign, however, is properly omitted in sentences like the following: —

"Of me the Roman people have many pledges, which I must strive with my utmost endeavors to preserve, defend, confirm, and redeem."

"Many authors expect the printer to point, spell, and digest their copy, so that it may be intelligible to the reader."

"To shake the head, relent, and sigh, and yield."

"The most accomplished way of using books at present is, to serve them as some do lords, — learn their titles, and then brag of their acquaintance."

The active verbs *bid*, *dare*, *feel*, *see*, and some others, usually take the infinitive after them without the *to;* as,

"If he bade thee depart, how darest thou stay?"

The *to* is erroneously used in the following examples wherever it is Italicized: —

"I dare not *to* proceed so hastily, lest I should give offence."

"I dare *to* say he has not got home yet."

"I felt a chilling sensation *to* creep over me."

"It cannot but be a delightful spectacle, to see a person besieged by temptations on every side *to* acquit himself gloriously, and resolutely *to* hold out against the most violent assaults."

"Who bade the mud from Dives' wheel
To spurn the rays of Lazarus?"

§ 40. The particle *to* should not be separated from the verb by any intervening word, as in the following examples: —

"The student must not expect *to always find* [always to find] study agreeable."

"A sufficient number and variety of cases *to fully illustrate* [fully to illustrate] the rule."

"It seems probable that this portion was filled with some substance *to better adapt* [the better to adapt] it to the hand."

"A right *to exclusively* [exclusively to] make and sell an article rests," etc.

"*To thoroughly* [Thoroughly to] cleanse and purify garments without injury," etc.

"But to point out only one example of this dog-English, some of our writers have taken lately to ill-using our neat and compact verb by ramming an adverb into its midst. They will say, 'to appreciatively drink bottled stout'; 'to energetically walk to Paddington'; 'to incessantly think'; 'to ably reason.' Where was this dog-English whelped? You should say, 'to think incessantly'; 'to reason ably.' Let us suppose that 'bow-wow' means to drink. Do you ever hear your dog say, 'Bow — wagging my tail — wow?'"[1]

[1] Jean Ingelow, John Jerome, (Boston, 1886,) pp. 211, 212.

This order, however, is sometimes changed in poetry for the sake of rhythm; as,

"Who dared to nobly stem tyrannic pride." — Burns.

§ 41. The infinitive cannot properly be understood by the sign *to* at the end of a sentence, referring to a foregoing verb in the sentence. E. g.: —

"He has not done it, nor is he likely to [do it]."

"Can a man arrive at excellence who has no desire to [do so]?"

"I have not written, and I do not intend to [write]."

"When an auxiliary, or *do*, is used with an ellipsis, or instead of the verb, care should be taken that it is such as can properly be used with the form of the verb elsewhere given." [1]

"I did not say, as some have *done* [said]."

"I am surprised that he should leave things as he has *done* [left them]."

"These relations cannot be pictured. All attempts *to do so* [so to picture them] rest upon a false foundation."

"The reduction of unrelated phenomena to order is pleasing; the inability *to do so* [so to reduce them] is displeasing."

§ 42. Such expressions as "Try *and* think," "Try *and* make," "Try *and* do it," etc. are erroneous. Say, "Try to think," "Try to make," "Try to do it," etc.

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[1] L. R. Williston, Manual prepared for a Private School, (Cambridge, 1865,) p. 17.

CHAPTER VIII.

TENSE, OR TIME.

§ 43. Errors are very common in the tense, or time, of the verb. E. g. : —

"I *drunk* [drank] his health."

"I *begun* [began] to feel sleepy."

"You *done* well." Say, "You did well," or "You have done well."

"I saw him when he *done* [did] it."

"I intended to *have written* [write] to him on the subject."

"I feared that I should *have lost* [lose] it before I arrived at the city."

"Remember that you *might* [may] fail."

"I will not speak of it, even if I *should* [shall] be asked."

"To *have prevented* [prevent] their depreciation, the proper course, it is affirmed, would have been to *have made* [make] a valuation of all the confiscated property."

"By charging an annuity upon the specific property, he has shown an intent that the annuitant *should* [shall] receive it whenever it *could* [can] be realized therefrom."

"No sooner had the nobility met their doom in the Wars of the Roses, and the hands of royalty *were* [had been] untied, than a determined effort was made to uproot every national liberty."

"Had we been writing for the English public, we *would give* [should have given] it but a paragraph; and the quotation from Macaulay given below would *constitute* [have constituted] the substance of what we *said* [should have said]."

"The witness testified that he *was* [had been] chairman of the selectmen since 1880."

"The general conclusions of the judge are correct, and the

only error therein *consisted* [consists] in the improper use of the term 'trade-mark.'"

"One who *should make* [had made] a study of him at that time would *predict* [have predicted] a steady, not swift growth."

"It would have been worth your while to *have heard* [hear] them."

"The act granting the pension was not passed until long after the war was over and the service *rendered* [had been rendered]."

§ 44. The imperfect tense or preterite, in irregular verbs, is often erroneously used for the perfect participle. As,

"When an interesting story is *broke* [broken] off in the middle."

"He hath *bore* [borne] witness to his faithful servants."

"Philosophers have often *mistook* [mistaken] the source of true happiness."

"I have *chose* [chosen] to follow the common arrangement."

"They were verses *wrote* [written] on glass."

"He is now *forsook* [forsaken] by every one."

"I have *shook* [shaken] off the regal thoughts wherewith I reigned."

"And it would become necessary to contradict one day what I had *wrote* [written] on the other."

CHAPTER IX.

SHALL AND WILL, SHOULD AND WOULD.

§ 45. The fundamental distinction between *shall* and *will* is that *shall* indicates what is *involuntary*, or compulsory, and *will* what is *voluntary*, or the result of the will.

"*Shall* means originally 'owe, be under obligation'; and *will* means 'wish, resolve, determine.' The phrases really signify, then, 'I owe, am bound or obligated to, the act of giving'; and 'I intend, am determined on, giving.' Out of this difference in the original meaning of the words has grown a difference between the form of the future expression in the first person on the one hand, and the second and third persons on the other hand. To denote simply something that is going to take place, we ordinarily use *shall* in the first person, and *will* in the others." [1]

"The difference between *should* and *would* is in general the same as that between *shall* and *will*, and they are in like manner confused by inaccurate speakers." [2]

Will in the first person expresses assent or a promise, or a determination; as,

"I will go" (if it is asked of me).

"I will go" (whatever may oppose).

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[1] Whitney's Essentials of English Grammar, page 119.

[2] Ibid., page 121.

Will in the second person foretells; as,

"If you come at twelve o'clock, you will find me at home."

"You will soon be twenty."

Sometimes it expresses a command; as,

"You will learn the next lesson to-morrow."

"On receipt of this, you will immediately report at head-quarters."

In questions in the second person, *will* expresses a wish or desire on the part of the speaker; as,

"Will you go to-morrow?" = "I wish you to go to-morrow."

"Will you let me know if you can come?"

Will in the third person simply foretells what is known or thought by the speaker; as,

"He will be at home to-morrow."

"I think it will rain to-day."

"We will have dinner at six o'clock," i. e. "We will order it to be ready at six o'clock."

In questions in the third person, *will* inquires concerning the purpose of another, or asks what the speaker has no means of knowing; as,

"Will they be willing to receive us?"

"When will our troubles be at an end?"

Shall in the first person expresses a determination, or merely announces future action; as,

"I shall go to town to-morrow."

"We shall set out early, and shall try to arrive by noon."

"We shall have dinner at six o'clock," i. e. "Dinner is to be ready at six o'clock."

Shall in interrogative sentences in the first person asks permission, or inquires as to the intention or opinion of another; as,

"Shall I go with you?" = "Do you wish me to go with you?"

"When shall we see you again?"

"When shall we get there?"

Shall in the second or third person expresses a promise, a determination, a command, or a threat; as,

"You shall have these books to-morrow."

"He shall go," = "I promise that he shall go."

"He shall go," i. e. whether he wishes to go or not.

"Thou shalt not steal."

"You shall be punished for this."

In the third person it is sometimes also used conditionally; as,

"If he shall obey, it will be well for him."

§ 46. The difference between *should* and *would*, which are the past forms of *shall* and *will*, is mainly the same as in the present forms; *would* referring to an exercise of will, and *should* implying contingent, dependent action, or obligation. E. g.:—

"I would as readily do it myself as persuade another to do it."

"I should like to go to town, and would go if I could."

"I hoped that I should not be left alone."

"I know I should dislike the country."

Should and *would* are both often used to express a conditional assertion; as,

"I should go, if I could get away."

"He would give, if he had the means."

"If he should come, you would see him."

"I should not do so, if I were in your place."

"I would not do so, if I were in your place."

"Should they not agree to the proposals, what am I to do?"

Would is often used to express a wish; as,

"Would I were home again!"

"I would have you think of these things."

"Would God I had died for thee, O Absalom!"

"Would thou hadst hearkened to my words!"

Also to express a custom; as,

"He would often talk about these things."

"She would weep all day."

Would also sometimes expresses determination; as,

"He would go, I could not stop him."

"He would persist in his course, in spite of all I could say."

Should often has the meaning of *ought*, and expresses duty; as,

"He should go by all means, but he will not."

"You should not allow such conduct in school."

§ 47. The following are examples of the correct use of these words: —

"They that fear the Lord will seek that which is well pleasing unto him; and they that love him shall be filled with the law." — *Ecclus.* ii. 16.

"He that honoreth his father shall have a long life; and he that is obedient unto the Lord shall be a comfort to his mother. He that feareth the Lord will honor his father and will do service unto his parents, as to his masters." — *Ecclus.* iii. 6, 7.

"If I might see you at my house, it should go hard but I would have a bottle of wine and a pipe of tobacco for you." — Beaumont and Fletcher.

"If she love me, then believe
I will die ere she shall grieve." — George Wither.

"If she hate me, then believe
She shall die ere I will grieve." — Ben Jonson.

"This child I to myself will take:
She shall be mine, and I will make
A lady of my own.
Myself will to my darling be
Both law and impulse; and with me
The girl, in rock and plain,
In earth and heaven, in glade and bower,
Shall feel an overseeing power
To kindle or restrain."

Wordsworth, *Poems of Imagination*, X.

"And at the end or determination of this lease shall and will deliver up the premises unto the lessor," etc. — *Modern Lease.*

§ 48. The words Italicized in the following examples are erroneous: —

"We *will* issue this paper as occasion demands. The next edition will be issued early in the spring. The size of the sheet will be very much enlarged, and we *will* circulate between fifteen and twenty thousand copies. We *will* have considerable advertising space, which will be allotted to the business men of this vicinity on very reasonable terms." — *Newspaper Prospectus.*

"If we found such a system of writing history we *would* pronounce the division of labor in it unnatural."

"We *will* soon be able to answer this pertinent question."

"Unless they can intervene to preserve the credit of the mark, all faith in its integrity *shall* soon be destroyed."

"An order was made that supplemental mails to all European steamers *will* be despatched to the steamer from the main office after the close of the regular mail."

"Were we writing for the English public, we *would* give it but a paragraph."

"Compel me to retire, and I shall be fallen indeed; I *would* feel myself blighted in the eyes of all my acquaintance; I *would* nevermore lift up my face in society; I *would* bury myself in the

oblivion of shame and solitude; I *would* hide me from the world; I *would* be overpowered by the feelings of my own disgrace; the torments of self-reflection would pursue me." — Chalmers.

"Perchance I *will* be there as soon as you." — *Com. of Errors*, iv. 1.

"I *will* sooner have a beard grow on the palm of my hand than he *shall* get one on his cheek." — 2 *Henry IV.*, i. 2.

"But if we look into the English comedies above mentioned, we *would* [should] think they were formed upon quite a contrary maxim." — Addison.

"If this passion were simply painful, we *would* [should] shun with the greatest care all persons and places that could excite such a passion." — Burke.

"Let us, then, should we make a slip, possess our souls in patience, and not bewail ourselves that we are utterly lost to English idiom. For he must be an insufficiently informed critic of English literature who does not know that even the most thorough-bred English writers themselves have not always been able to use *shall* and *will*, and particularly *should* and *would*, without some shilly-shallying between them."[1]

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[1] Richard Grant White, Every-Day English, pp. 357, 358.

CHAPTER X.

LIE AND LAY.—SET AND SIT.

§ 49. In order to understand the proper use of these verbs, the form of their principal parts should first of all be thoroughly learned.

In *lie* and *lay* these are as follows, viz. :—

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
Lie	Lay	Lying	Lain.
Lay	Laid	Laying	Laid.

The main thing to be borne in mind is that *lay* (in every sense in which it can be misunderstood) is a transitive or active verb, and *lie* is an intransitive or neuter verb. What adds to the confusion between the words is that the imperfect of *lie* is *lay*.

Present.

"I lie down to sleep." "A book lies upon the table." "Guilt lies heavy on his mind." "The sea lies between the two countries."

"I lay myself down to sleep." "I lay a book upon the table." "We lay a foundation." "The rain lays the dust."

Imperfect.

"I lay down to sleep." "A book lay upon the table." "Guilt lay heavy on his mind." "The sea lay between the two countries."

"I laid myself down to sleep." "I laid a book upon the table." "We laid the foundation." "The rain laid the dust."

Present Participle.

"A book is lying upon the table." "Guilt is lying heavy on his mind."

"We are laying the foundation." "The rain is laying the dust."

Perfect Participle.

"I had lain down to sleep." "A book had lain upon the table." "The sea had once lain between the two countries."

"I had laid myself down to sleep." "I had laid the book upon the table."

"We *lie* down to-night, we *lay* down yesterday, our studies have *lain* in certain directions; but we *lay* a book down to-night, we *laid* it down yesterday, we have *laid* aside our studies. A ship *lies* to, not *lays* to. The same distinction applies to compounds; as, *to underlie, to overlay.*" [1]

§ 50. The principal parts of *set* and *sit* are as follows: —

PRESENT.	IMPERFECT.	PRES. PART.	PERF. PART.
Set	Set	Setting	Set
Sit	Sat	Sitting	Sat

Set is in most significations an active verb; but we say, "The sun sets," and "The tide sets."

We set about, set apart, set aside, anything.

We set out on a journey, set down in writing.

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[1] Hill's Principles of Rhetoric, pp. 54, 55.

Sit is in most senses a neuter verb. It is active, however, in the expression, "A man sits a horse."

We sit down in a chair, we sit up late at night.

We sit for a portrait. A coat sits well.

Congress or a court sits.

We set a hen, but a hen sits on eggs. We should say, therefore, "a sitting hen," not "a setting hen."

We sit in "a sitting-room," and not in "a setting-room."

CHAPTER XI.

USE OF THE PARTICIPLE.

§ 51. Where the article is used before a present participle, the preposition *of* is necessary after it; but in many cases either the omission of both article and preposition, or the substitution of a noun of equivalent signification, is better. E. g.: —

"An act for the better regulating [of] government in Massachusetts."

"An act for better regulating government in Massachusetts."

"An act for the better regulation of government," etc.

"To the introducing [of] such an order of things."

"To introducing such an order of things."

"To the introduction of such an order of things."

"By the establishing [of] good laws, we secure our peace."

"By establishing good laws, we secure our peace."

"By the establishment of good laws," etc.

§ 52. But *of* should not be used after the participle, where the article is not used before it. It should therefore be omitted in the following examples: —

"From calling *of* names they proceeded to blows."

"In forming *of* his sentences he was very exact."

"In breaking *of* bread from house to house."

"They set about repairing *of* the walls."

"Teaching *of* children is a pleasant employment."

§ 53. The participle requires the possessive case before it where the noun itself is the active agent; but if the noun is a passive subject, the possessive should not be used. E. g.: —

"Lady *Macbeth* [Macbeth's] walking in her sleep is an incident full of tragic horror."

"Much will depend on the *pupil* [pupil's] composing frequently."

"The event of *Maria* [Maria's] loving her brother."

"The fact of *James* [James's] placing himself on his side."

"The paper then discusses the probable result of *England* [England's] following the policy indicated by Mr. Chamberlain's speeches."

"When they speak of a *monosyllable's* [monosyllable *or* monosyllable as] having the grave or the acute accent."

"The daily instances of *men's* [men] dying around us."

§ 54. The use of the active participle in English in a passive sense is well established, and cannot be questioned, as in the following examples: "The house is building," "Wheat is selling," "The work is now publishing," etc. Many writers have contended that this form is erroneous, and that the passive form should always be used instead; while others have as strenuously maintained that the passive form should never be used, and that the active form is the only correct one. But there is no doubt that in many cases the passive form is decidedly better than the active; as in the following examples: —

"For those who are being educated in our seminaries." — Southey.

"It was being uttered." — Coleridge.

"It signifies properly, though in uncouth English, one who is being beaten." — Whately.

"The foundation was being laid."

In the following passage it must be admitted that the passive form would be infinitely preferable: —

"I saw one *dragging* [being dragged] into light, as I passed by the ruins. . . . Whether she was *taking* [being taken] to account by some disappointed votary, I will not pretend to answer."

In the following example, on the contrary, the active form is certainly better: —

"The law is annulled in the very act of its *being made* [making]."

§ 55. The passive participle is sometimes improperly and awkwardly used instead of the active or impersonal form. As,

"But as soon as the whole body is *attempted to be carved*, a disproportion between its various parts results, which is most disagreeable to the eye."

Correct so as to read, "But as soon as an attempt is made to carve the whole body," etc.

"The offence *attempted to be charged* should be alleged under another section of the statute."

Correct, "The offence which it is attempted to charge," etc.

"The seeds of the umbrella pine, which previous to his visit had been difficult *to be obtained*, he procured in great quantities."

Correct to "it had been difficult to obtain."

"The storm was unfortunate in *selecting* a district poorly represented by observers, and thus lost the opportunity of *being carefully observed*."

Correct, "The storm unfortunately occurred in a district poorly represented by observers, and thus the opportunity for its careful observation was lost."

CHAPTER XII.

ADJECTIVES AND ADJECTIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 56. Adjectives implying unity or plurality must agree in number with the nouns which they qualify. The following examples are therefore erroneous: —

"*These sort* of fellows are very numerous."

"*This* twenty years have I been with thee."

"He thought *these kind* of excesses indicative of greatness."

"The standard being more than *two foot* above it."

"*Three pound* of gold went to one shekel."

"Most of the churches had one or more ruling *elder* [elders]."

"The nature of *that* [those] riches and [that] long-suffering is to lead to repentance."

"By reflecting on that which is myself now, and that which was myself twenty years ago, I discern that they are not *two*, but one and the same self." — Butler's *Analogy*. (Insert "selves" after *two*.)

"For *this* among other reasons the contract was executed." (Correct, "For this reason, among others," etc.)

"In *this* and most of our large cities." (Insert "city" after *this*.)

"Between the fourth and ninth *day* [days]." Or, "Between the fourth and the ninth day."[1]

"From the fifteenth up to the nineteenth *centuries* [century]."[1]

An adjective pronoun in the plural, however, may sometimes be properly associated with a singular noun; as, "our desire," "your intention," "their resignation," etc.

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[1] See *ante*, page 12.

As *means* may be either singular or plural, the two following examples are correct: —

"He lived temperately, and by this means preserved his health."

"The scholars were attentive, industrious, and obedient to their teachers, and by these means acquired knowledge."

For "By *some* means or *another*," put "By one means or another," or "By some means or other."[1]

§ 57. The expression *each other* must be used if only two subjects are spoken of, *one another* if more than two. The following are examples of erroneous use: —

"Two negatives in English destroy *one another*, or are equivalent to an affirmative." — *Murray's Grammar*, Rule XVI.

"Both orators take great liberties with *one another*."

"Teachers like to see their pupils polite to *each other*."

"In the classification of words, almost all writers differ from *each other*."

"A strobile is a pericarp made up of scales which overlie *each other*."

"Prayers, masses, and confessions followed *each other* with an edifying regularity."

§ 58. After *other*, *otherwise*, *else*, or any adjective in the comparative degree, *than* is usually required. As,

"The mind no sooner entertains any proposition *but* [than] it presently hastens to some hypothesis to bottom it upon."

"No other resource *but* [than] this was allowed him."

"My behavior has, I fear, been the death of a man who had no other fault *but* [than] that of loving me too much."

"A metaphor is nothing else *but* [than] a short comparison."

"Architecture and gardening cannot otherwise entertain the mind *but* [than] by raising certain agreeable emotions or feelings."

"The policy contained no other reference to an assignment *except* [than] the following."

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[1] See *ante*, page 18.

"He was selling tickets for two other railroads *in addition to* [than] those before mentioned."

"This is none other *but* [than] the house of God, and this is the gate of heaven."

After *else* and *other* the preposition *besides* is sometimes used; "other . . . than" is exclusive of those mentioned, whereas "other . . . besides" is inclusive of those mentioned. E. g.: —

"Other words besides the preceding may begin with capitals."

"Other materials besides lead are used in the house service."

"Pain must here signify something else besides warning."

§ 59. Where comparisons are made, care must be taken to exclude from and include in both terms precisely what is intended, by the use or omission of *other*, or an equivalent word. As,

"Iron is more useful than all the [other] metals."

"A fondness for show is of all *other* follies the most ridiculous."

"No [other] writings whatever so abound with bold and animated figures as the sacred books."

"This was less his case than any [other] man's that ever wrote."

"The temple of Cholula was deemed more holy than any [other] in New Spain."

"Of all *other* beings, man has certainly the greatest reason for gratitude."

"It is of all *others* [things] that which most moves us."

"I think it superior to any [other] work of that nature we have yet had."

"No [other] sovereign was ever so much beloved by the people."

"Nothing [else] delights me so much as the works of nature."

"He celebrates the Church of England as the nearest perfection of all *others* [churches]."

§ 60. *Either* and *neither*. — These words were formerly considered to apply properly only to two persons or things taken separately, and to signify one or the

other, and that is strictly their true usage. But good authority has established the use of both words in relation to any indefinite number. As,

"Either of several provinces."

"Our alphabet has no letter to represent either of five simple consonant sounds."

"Words not reducible to either of the three preceding heads."

"Dryden, Pope, and Wordsworth have not scrupled to lay a profane hand upon Chaucer, — a mightier genius than either." — George P. Marsh.

"Neither of these five verbs can be neuter."

"Neither of the ten was there."

§ 61. *One* as the antecedent of *his*: "One ought to know his own mind." — It has been contended by many that this construction is wrong, and contrary to English idiom. It seems to me, however, to be right, both logically and grammatically; it is more euphonious than using *one's* for *his*, is sanctioned by good usage, and is correct according to the principle by which the masculine pronoun is used where the antecedent is indefinite as to gender; as, "A person can never do anything at variance with his own nature." This sentence, and others like it, would be equally correct if "One" were substituted for "A person."

§ 62. *None*, although literally meaning *no one*, may be used with a plural verb, having the signification of a noun of multitude. As,

"In at this gate none pass the vigilance here placed." — Milton.

"Terms of peace were none vouchsafed." — Ibid.

"None that go unto her return again." — *Prov.* ii. 19.

"None of their productions are extant." — Blair.

"None of them are varied to express the gender."

§ 63. The adjectives *whole* and *less* are properly applied in relation to quantity; *all* and *fewer*, in relation

to number. The following are examples of erroneous usage: —

"Almost *the whole* [all the] inhabitants were present."

"The Redcross Knight runs through *the whole* [all the] steps of the Christian life."

"There are no *less* [fewer] than twenty diphthongs in the English language."

"There were not *less* [fewer] than fifty or sixty persons present."

All is sometimes incorrectly used for *the whole*, and sometimes for *only;* as,

"The disease spread over *all the* [the whole] country."

"Cynthia and Mary were *all the* [the only] children of their parents."

§ 64. The use of *two first, three last*, etc., for "first two," "last three," etc., is incorrect. As,

"The *two last* [last two] chapters will not be found deficient in this respect."

"The *six first* books of the Æneid are exceedingly beautiful."

"The *nine first* chapters of the Book of Proverbs are highly poetical."

"Analytical Notes on the First and *Three Last* of the Minor Prophets. By the Rev. Wm. Randolph, M. A. Cambridge."

It has been attempted to defend the usage of "two first," etc., by authority. But every error in grammar might be established if frequent usage or the occasional slips of good authors are to be accepted as final authority. Goold Brown says, "The ordinal adjectives *first, second, next, last*, may qualify the cardinal numbers, but they cannot very properly be qualified by them," and the weight of authority is overwhelmingly in support of this statement.

The ordinals *second, third*, etc. should not be used as adverbs, for *secondly, thirdly*, etc.; and *first*, as an adverb, is preferable to *firstly*.

§ 65. Adjectives are often used where adverbs are required; as,

"*Agreeable* [Agreeably] to my promise, I now write."

"He acted in this business *bolder* [more boldly] than was expected."

"I can never think so very *mean* [meanly] of him."

"How *remarkable* [remarkably] heavy it is!"

"He was *exceeding* [exceedingly] kind to me."

"I called on his lordship *previous*[1] to my leaving England."

"Endeavor to live hereafter *suitable* [suitably] to your station in life."

In like manner, adverbs are sometimes used for adjectives; as,

"The arrows of calumny fall *harmlessly* [harmless] at the feet of virtue."

"This construction sounds rather *harshly* [harsh]."

"The returns of the election, official or *otherwise*, are now all in."

§ 66. "There is sometimes a question whether to use an adjective or an adverb after certain verbs. The principle seems to be, that when the limiting word expresses a *quality* or *state* of the subject or the object, rather than the *manner* of the action, an adjective is proper. This construction takes place with the verbs *be*, *look*, *taste*, *smell*, *feel*, *seem*, etc."[2] Briefly, if the verb is intended to be qualified, the adverb should be used; if the noun is intended to be qualified, the adjective. E. g.:—

"The berry tastes sour." "The flower smells sweet."

"The man felt bad about it."

"The woman looked beautiful."

"She looks cold." "He feels warm."

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[1] Although this use of *previous* for *previously* is objected to by grammarians, yet it has been used by many good writers.

[2] Tweed's Grammar for Common Schools, page 111.

In the following examples the adverb is correctly used; as,

"She looks coldly on him."

"He feels warmly the insult offered to him."

Then and *now* are sometimes improperly made to serve as adjectives; as,

"Even in the *then* rigorous climate and other hard conditions of Europe." (Omit *then*, and insert *at that time* after "Europe.")

"The *then* King of France was engaged in waging war with England."

"The *now* [existing *or* present] copies of the original text are entire."

§ 67. Where only two persons or subjects are compared, the adjective must be in the comparative degree, not, as is often the case, in the superlative; but if more than two are included in the comparison, the superlative must be used. E. g.: —

"This is the *best* [better] of the two."

"Her mother seemed the *youngest* [younger] of the two."

"Of two evils choose the *least* [lesser]."

§ 68. *Former* and *latter*, being adjectives of the comparative degree, should not be used for *first* and *last*, after a specification of three or more different subjects or persons; as,

"The *two latter* [last two] localities are much older than the pueblos of Cholula."

"The court-yard is formed by two decayed mounds, the mound of worship, and a hill, the *latter* [last] of which is a regular terrace."

"Our road lay by Louvain, Thirlemont, Liège, Aix-la-Chapelle, and Juliers, to the Rhine. The *former* [first] of these towns," etc. — J. Fenimore Cooper.

§ 69. When the adjective pronouns *this* and *that*, or *these* and *those*, refer to contrasted antecedent terms, *this*

or *these* should represent the latter, and *that* or *those* the former term; as,

"And reason raise o'er instinct as you can,
In this 't is God directs, in that 't is man." — Pope.

"Farewell my friends! farewell my foes!
My peace with these, my love with those!" — Burns.

The pronoun *that* is often omitted where it is necessary to show reference to an antecedent term; as,

"If the corporation was carrying on its operations under the charter of 1792, or [that] of 1794, the argument would be conclusive."

"Notice the difference between the effect of this volatile acid and [that] of a strong fixed acid when both are equally dilute."

"He certainly preceded the coming of the tribes that formed the valley confederacy, as well as [that] of the later tribes of Tlascala."

§ 70. Other errors are the vulgar use of *them* for *those;* and also the application of degrees of comparison to adjectives which are superlative in primary signification, as *chief, extreme, perfect, right, universal, supreme,* etc. It is incorrect to say "*so* perfect," "*so* universal," etc.; but we can say, "nearer perfection," "nearer right," "less extreme," "less perfect," etc.

CHAPTER XIII.

ADVERBS.

§ 71. Adverbs are frequently given a wrong position in the sentence. No absolute rule can be laid down for their proper position. They should generally be placed before the words they qualify; sometimes, however, after verbs, or between the auxiliary and the verb, but never between *to* and the infinitive.[1] The adverb *only* is especially apt to be misplaced. The following are examples of wrong position:—

"We must not expect to find study *agreeable always* [always agreeable]."

"Instead of looking *contemptuously down* [down contemptuously] on the crooked in mind or body, we should look up thankfully to God, who has made us better."[2]

"Everything favored by good usage is *not* on that account to be retained." (Place *not* at the beginning of the sentence.)

"By hasty composition we shall *acquire certainly* [certainly acquire] a very bad style."

"The comparisons are short, touching *on one point only* [only on one point] of resemblance."

"Having *had once* [once had] some prominent object set before us."

"The positive seems *improperly to be* [to be improperly] called a degree."

"In some phrases *the genitive is only* [only the genitive is] used."

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[1] See *ante*, § 40.

[2] Murray corrects "look up thankfully" to "thankfully look up"; but I think the order of the first clause as corrected, "looking down contemptuously," should be followed in the second one.

"This blunder is said *actually to have* [to have actually] occurred."

"But every man is *not* called James, nor every woman Mary." (Place *not* after "But.")

"Most men dream, but *all do not* [not all]."

"We *have often* [often have] occasion to speak of time."

"The words must *be generally* [generally be] separated from the context."

"But it is *only so* [so only] when the expression can be converted into the regular form."

"For sinners also lend to sinners to receive *as much again* [again as much]."

"He was about to go on, when he perceived from her quivering eye and pallid cheek that nothing *less* than imposture was intended." — Scott, *Old Mortality*. (Say, "nothing was less intended than imposture.")

"Meister is brought to realize *that he is not only* [not only that he is] a social and moral being, and capable of development as such, but that he is also a religious being."

§ 72. The adverb should not be unnecessarily introduced in the middle of a clause at the beginning of a sentence, thus multiplying pauses, but should be placed at the end of the clause; as,

"It remains, *then, undecided,* [undecided, then,] whether the effect of heredity is to transmit these characteristics."

"We may define, *therefore,* the cause of a phenomenon to be the antecedent, on which it is invariably consequent." (Put "therefore" after "phenomenon.")

For the erroneous placing of the adverb between the particle *to* and the infinitive, see *ante*, § 40.

§ 73. Misuse of adverbs is very frequent. Some of the more common cases are the following.

"'*Like* I did,' is a gross Western and Southern vulgarism for 'as I did.'"[1]

[1] Mathews's "Words, their Use and Abuse."

This use of *like* for *as* is by no means a peculiarity of the South and West. I have known Englishmen who constantly used the expression, and the following examples, which might be multiplied indefinitely, are taken from recent English works: —

"It must be very jolly to travel *like* he does." — Hugh Conway, *Living and Dead.*

"So few are placed *like* I was, that my audience who would understand and enter into my feelings must be too limited to trouble about." — Ibid., and so *passim.*

"It is *like* it was to be a king when men struggled among themselves who should be a king." — Anthony Trollope.

"And sometimes, passing through the ground-floor passage, he would see her ironing, *like* that first time." — Vernon Lee, *Miss Brown.*

Such is often improperly used for the adverb *so.* E. g.: —

"In *such a* [so] mild and fruitful [a] region."

"With all due deference to *such a high* [so high an] authority on *such a* [so] very important [a] matter." — Moon, *Dean's English.*

"*Such a* [so] lovely [a] woman," "*Such a* [so] beautiful [a] flower," etc.

"*Quite* should be used in the sense of 'entirely,' never for 'rather' or 'very.'"[1]

"Wounded *quite* [very] severely."

"Mr. John Redman flattered himself he was *quite* the gentleman." Say, "a perfect gentleman."

"The conclusions drawn from a casual view are frequently *quite* different from the results of a complete investigation."

"The acquisition of the power of speech is in all probability a *quite* recent occurrence."

Equally as well is often used for "equally well," or "as well."

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[1] Hill's Principles of Rhetoric, p. 58.

How should not be used before "that," or instead of it; nor for "lest." E. g.: —

"He said *how* [that] he would go."

"Ye see how *that* not many wise men are called." (Omit *that.*)

"Be cautious *how* [lest] you offend him."

No is often used improperly for "not"; as,

"I do not know whether they are out or *no.*" — Byron.

"Whether he be a sinner or *no*, I know not." — *John* ix. 25.

"Can I make men live, whether they will or *no*?"

"I shall not ask Jean Jaques Rousseau
If birds confabulate or *no.*" — Cowper.

Ever and *never* are very often confused; as,

"In some parts of the country, it seldom or *ever* [never] rains."

"We seldom or *ever* [never] see those forsaken who trust in God." (Or correct to "seldom if ever."]

Many grammarians consider expressions like "never so good," "never so well," "never so wisely," as erroneous, and that *never* should be *ever* in such phrases. But Professor Hill, speaking of "never so good," and some other expressions, says, "Whether easy to parse or not, they are easy to understand, and are facts in language."

Most for *almost* is a common barbarism; as, "The work is *most* done."

CHAPTER XIV.

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

§ 74. *Who*, *whose*, and *whom* apply only to persons or to things personified; *which* applies to irrational animals or to inanimate objects; and *that* applies to either persons, animals, or things.

That, either by reason of its applicability to both persons and things, or because it is required after *same* or an adjective in the superlative, should be used in the following sentences in place of *who* or *which*.

"He instructed and fed the crowds *who* [that] surrounded him."

"Among nations *who* [that] are in the first and rude periods of society."

"The crowd *who* [that] was going up the street was very orderly."

"An only child is one *who* [that] has neither brother nor sister."

"He spoke largely of the men and things *which* [that] he had seen."

"The second person denotes the person or thing *which* [that] is spoken to."

"This is the most useful art *which* [that] men possess."

"The same proportions *which* [that] are agreeable in a model are not agreeable in a large building."

Who, *whose*, and *whom* are often misused for *which*, as also *which* for *whom*. E. g.: —

"Frequented by every fowl *whom* [which] nature has taught to dip the wing in water." — Johnson.

"Exactly like so many puppets, *who* [which] are moved by wires."

"They are my servants, *which* [whom] I brought forth out of the land of Egypt."

"They being the agents to *which* [whom] this thing was intrusted."

"Hidden away under a knotted veil, *whose flaps* [the flaps of which] fall on either side of her bright round throat."

"The method is to transfer each ingredient to some new combination which can be formed without loss, and *whose composition* [the composition of which] is known."

"Weigh in a vial a quantity of sulphuric acid *whose* specific gravity has been previously ascertained."

"His character, *whose* weight and dignity were only partially expressed by his modest motto, gave the church lustre." (Correct to "the weight and dignity of which.")

Whose is given as the possessive of *which* in both of our American Dictionaries, and its use as such has become common; yet the best authorities condemn the usage, and deem it an error.

§ 75. The word *and* cannot properly be used before *which* or *who*, unless there has been a preceding *which* or *who* in the same sentence and in the same construction. E. g.: —

"The more important rules, definitions, and observations, *and which* are therefore the most proper to be committed to memory, are printed *with* a larger type." — *Murray's Grammar.*

Corrected in Moon's "Bad English" as follows: "The rules, definitions, and observations which are the more important, and which are therefore the most proper to be committed to memory, are printed in larger type."

"But we have duplicates of each, agreeing in movement though differing in measure, *and which* make different impressions on the ear: an opulence peculiar to our language, *and which* may be the source of a boundless variety." — *Murray's Grammar.* (Omit the *and* before which in both places.)

"This layer consists of small cells *whose* exposed outer walls

are rounded, *and which* contain the pigments characteristic of the group." (Correct to "cells the exposed outer walls of which," etc.)

"We think of the roadside life seen by Parson Adams or Humphry Clinker, *and* of which Mr. Borrow caught the last glimpse while dwelling in the tents of the Romany." (Omit *and*.)

"The approach of a party, sent for the purpose of compelling the country people to bury their dead, *and who* had already assembled several peasants for that purpose, now obliged Edward to rejoin his guide." (Insert "who had been" immediately after "party," and the sentence is correct.)

For the use of *which* without an antecedent, see *ante*, § 35.

For the misuse of *who* and *whom*, see *ante*, § 28.

§ 76. Adverbs are frequently used where a preposition and relative pronoun would much better express the sense; as,

"They framed a protestation, *where* [in which] they repeated their claim."

"They are not such in the language *whence* [from which] they are derived."

"By prepositions we express the cause why or the manner *how* [in which] a thing is done."

"And curse the battle *where* [in which] their fathers fell."

"There is no rule given *how* [by which] truth may be found out."

§ 77. The relative should be so placed as to prevent ambiguity, and as near as possible to the antecedent. E. g.: —

"It gives *a meaning to words* [to words a meaning] which they would not have."

"For he hath made him to be sin for us, who knew no sin." (Put "who knew no sin" after "him.")

"Take that of me, my friend, who have the power
To seal the accuser's lips."

Correct, "My friend, take that of me."

§ 78. The relative pronoun is often omitted where it should be expressed. E. g. : —

"The next error [that] I shall mention is a capital one."

"It is little [that] we know of the divine perfections."

"This is the worst thing [that] could happen."

"There were several things [which] brought it upon me."

"We speak that [which] we do know, and testify that [which] we have seen." — John iii. 11.

"Almost all the irregularities in the construction of any language have arisen from the ellipsis of some words which were originally inserted in the sentence and [which] made it regular." — *Murray's Grammar.*

78*a*. *That* restrictive. Bain, in his "Higher English Grammar," says: "*That* is the proper restrictive, explicative, limiting, or defining relative." But Prof. W. D. Whitney, in his "Essentials of English Grammar," says: —

"Some authorities hold that *who* and *which* are to be used as co-ordinating or simply descriptive relatives, but *that* as limiting or restrictive; thus, 'this soldier, *who* was recently wounded'; 'clouds, *which* are bodies of vapor'; but 'the soldiers *that* were wounded were left'; 'a cloud *that* lay near the horizon'; and so on. But the best English usage by no means requires such a distinction."

Neither Worcester nor Webster gives any such exclusive definition of *that*, and it is certainly inapplicable where no real limitation is intended or desired, as on the title-page of this book: "For the Use of all who teach, write, or speak the Language."

CHAPTER XV.

DOUBLE NEGATIVES.

§ 79. "Two negatives in English destroy one another,[1] or are equivalent to an affirmative." Such common barbarisms as "I don't want nothing," and "I have n't got none," would never be used by a respectable writer. But authors frequently violate the foregoing rule, although the mistake is not so apparent. E. g.: —

"Give not me counsel, *Nor* [and] let *no* comforter delight mine ear." — *Much Ado.*

"I pray you bear with me; I *cannot* go *no* further." — *As You Like It.*

"I never did repent for doing good, *nor* [and] shall *not* now." — *Merchant of Venice.*

"There can be *no* rules laid down, *nor* [and] *no* manner recommended." — Sheridan.

"I *cannot* [can] stop to tell you *hardly* any of the adventures that befell Theseus on the way to Athens." — Hawthorne.

"The faculties are called into *no* exercise by doing a thing merely because others do it, *no* [any] more than by believing a thing only because others believe it." — Geo. P. Marsh.

"*No* one *else* but the petitioners had any interest in the matter." (Omit *else.*)

"Now let us examine the case cited, and decide whether *or not* there was *not* a mistake made in the name." (Omit the second *not.*)

"We need not, *nor* [and] do *not*, confine the purposes of God."

"I cannot by *no* [any] means allow him what his argument must prove." (Or, "I can by no means allow," etc.)

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[1] See *ante*, page 49.

"There is *nothing* more admirable, *nor* [or] more useful."

"No skill could obviate, *nor* [and] *no* remedy dispel the terrible infection."

"Which do not continue, *nor* [and] are *not* binding."

"The train will *not* stop *only* when the bell rings." (Omit *not* or change *only* to "except.")

"For my part I love him not, *nor* [and] hate him *not*."

"I have *not* had a moment's time *hardly* since I received your letter." (Omit *not*.)

CHAPTER XVI.

CORRELATIVES.

§ 80. Certain adverbs and conjunctions require certain others to correspond with them, in comparison or antithesis, which are called correlatives. The principal words of this sort are the following: —

as . . . as, so.	*so, such . . . as, that.*
both . . . and.	*though . . . yet.*
if . . . then.	*when . . . then.*
either . . . or.	*where . . . there.*
neither . . . nor.	*whether . . . or.*

not only or *not merely . . . . but, but also, but even.*

"As thy days, so shall thy strength be."

"Lawn as white as driven snow."

"I am debtor both to the Greeks and to the barbarians, both to the wise and to the unwise."

"If I speak false, then may my father perish."

"Either he must leave, or I shall go."

"Neither this man sinned, nor his parents."

"These are questions, not of prudence merely, but of morals also."

"Smuggling and piracy were deemed not only not infamous, but even absolutely honorable."

"No lamb was e'er so mild as he."

"No man was so poor that he could not make restitution."

"The difference is of such a nature that it is easily seen."

"Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him."

"When the heart beats no more, then the life ends."

"Where the bee sucks, there suck I."

"Whether of a public or of a private nature."

§ 81. Mistakes are frequently made in the use of *or* and *nor* as the correspondents of *either* and *neither*, and of *not only* without its proper correlative *but* or *but also*. They are not so common with the other correlatives, though they sometimes occur. The following are examples of erroneous usage: —

"He neither cut, stored, *or* [nor] sold ice at Worcester."

"Upon the decease of either said Cynthia *and* [or] Mary, leaving children," etc.

"The instrument should be a bar, *both* in law *or* equity, to any claim that can be made." (Change *both* to *either*, or *or* to *and*.)

"Neither one *or* [nor] the other has the least chance of success."

"It shall not be forgiven him, neither in this world, *neither* [nor] in the world to come."

"Not only his estate, *his reputation too* [but also his reputation] has suffered by his misconduct."

"His work is not yet *as* [so] accurate and *as* [so] much simplified as it may be."

"Still so much of it is retained *as* [that it] greatly injures the uniformity of the work."

"*As* [So] far as I am able to judge, the book is well written."

"*If* Chaucer was accustomed to say that he took possession of whatever he found directed to him, *so* [then] no great poet need hesitate over any material at hand."

§ 82. As in comparisons (§ 59), care must be taken to place these correlatives so as to exclude and include precisely what is intended. The following are examples of wrong position: —

"I remember that I am not here as a censor *either of* [of either] manners or morals." — R. G. White, *Every-Day English*.

"He comes *either from* [from either] Ohio or Indiana." — Ayres, *Verbalist*.

"Oswald *not only communicated* [communicated not only] a copy of his commission, but a part of his instructions, and a letter from the Secretary of State." — George Bancroft.

"I *neither* estimated myself highly nor lowly." — J. S. Mill. (Put *neither* after *myself*.)

"He would *neither give* [give neither] wine, nor oil, nor money." — Thackeray.

"He *neither* attempted to excite anger, nor ridicule, nor admiration." (Say, "attempted to excite neither anger.")

"He *would not only* [not only would] be put to the expense of reproducing them, *but would* be obliged to postpone the use of them until new ones were made."

"I will not dispute about what can *neither be* [be neither] proved nor disproved."

"It is a good which *neither depends* [depends neither] on the will of others, nor on the affluence of external fortune."

"The division *affected not only* [not only affected] institutions and the forms of society, but entered the household, modified the beliefs, and marked off the whole structure of society."

CHAPTER XVII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 83. Beginning paragraphs or sentences with conjunctions should be avoided. The conjunctions *and*, *nor*, *or*, and others strictly connective, are often needlessly thus made to begin a sentence, more especially *and*. In many cases, the *and* is useless and may be omitted, and where it is necessary the sentence can often be joined with the preceding one. A disjunctive, like *but*, may sometimes be necessary at the beginning of the sentence, and in an animated or easy style it is perhaps unobjectionable to begin one with *and*. It is not easy to give examples, without taking up too much space, as whole sentences would be required to show the connection. Any one can find plenty of examples in his every-day reading, and can judge for himself as to their propriety or impropriety.

§ 84. The words *reason* and *because* should not be used together, the word *because* meaning "for that reason," and thus being redundant; as,

"*Because* [That] Rousseau had given an equally beautiful picture was no *reason* why Goethe should not repeat it."

"The other will fail, not for any apparent reason *but because* [except that] the one loves the child from the beginning."

"The *reasons* of appeal were *because* [that] the consent of the parents had not been obtained."

"The *reason* I ask you to do this is *because* [that] you can do it so much better than I."

§ 85. Other common errors in the use of conjunctions are the following.

Without for *unless, but for;* as,

"*Without* [Unless] the grammatical form of a word can be recognized at a glance, little progress can be made in reading the language."

"You will never live to my age *without* you keep yourself in breath with exercise."

"This veteran of forty campaigns would have fallen into the enemy's hands *without* [but for] a vigorous effort of the first legion."

Only or *but* for *except*. E. g.: —

"It has the well-known form of the cube, *only* [but] with this difference."

"The photograph was taken in a similar manner, *only* [except that] a greater number of exposures were made."

"First of white men *but* [except] the Friar Le Caron, Champlain beheld the fresh-water sea of the Hurons."

But what for *but that*. E. g.: —

"Think no man so perfect *but what* [but that] he may err."

"He would not believe *but what* I was joking." (Say, "that I was not joking.")

But is often unnecessarily used after words expressing doubt, or for *that* or *if*. E. g.: —

"There is no doubt *but* that the settlement there had ceased to be occupied before the Conquest."

"He never doubts *but* that he knows their intention."

"I should not wonder *but* [if] that was the case."

"I have no doubt *but* [that] he will come to-night."

For the use of *but* for *than* after *other* and the comparative degree, see *ante*, § 58.

§ 86. The conjunction *that* is often repeated, after an intervening clause, before the clause with which the first *that* was intended to connect. In each of

the following sentences one Italicized *that* should be omitted.

"To us it seems clear *that* if the parable of the prodigal son is to be taken as the feeling of God towards every sinner, *that* every sinner must at least be brought back by the mighty power of His redeeming love."

"It does not seem to me easy to say, *that* if cases of unliquidated damages may be treated as debts because they end in the ascertainment of a fixed sum of money, *that* we are at liberty to say that the doctrine is not equally applicable to all cases of unliquidated damages." — Judge Story.

"I have noted *that* when you wish to touch on many different details, *that* you fare better if you adopt rapid interrogation."

"The Master of the Rolls had held *that* if, in dyeing, the colors were so effected that whiteness could not be predicated of the selvage, and that the twisted thread was mottled, red and white, *that* as matter of law the particular trade-mark was not infringed, and that therefore the plaintiff had no remedy."

"The counsel contended, *that*, if the jury found that the facts were as claimed by the plaintiff, and amounted to a warranty, *that* such warranty was a part of the contract."

"I wished to show, by your own writings, *that* so far were you from being competent to teach others English composition, *that* you had need yourself to study its first principles." — Moon, *Dean's English*.

§ 87. *That* is also often omitted in cases where it is essential to the sense. E. g.: —

"After years of labor he felt [that] there was a very strong contrast between the insignificance of his performance and the greatness of his project."

"Is there not too prevalent an opinion [that] there must be fixed classes in society?"

"Though the instances are numerous, it is hoped [that] they will not be found too many."

"He told me [that] he would proceed immediately."

"It is manifestly impossible to apply the principle to such judgments as [that] A is greater than B."

CHAPTER XVIII.

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 88. The ending of a sentence with a preposition is generally considered at the present day to be a perfectly legitimate English idiom, and entirely accordant with the usages of the language, though it was formerly objected to by many writers. Hence originated the familiar jest concerning the grammarian who gave as a rule, "A preposition is a very bad word to end a sentence with." This usage of the preposition, however, is indispensable in a free and flowing style.

§ 89. Prepositions are often misused, and there is some difference of opinion among writers as to the proper preposition to be used with certain words; but the following are a few specimen examples, if not of erroneous, at least of inelegant usage.[1] E. g.: —

"The trust referred to *by* [in] the letter is not used in the will."

"To rise *beyond* [above] that is given to a few."

"Alike independent *on* [of] another."

"How different *to* [from] this is the life of Fulvia!"

"This is very different *to* [*from*] what was expected."

"The wisest powers need not think it any diminution *to* [of] or derogation *to* [from] their sufficiency."

"In pursuance *to* [of] the provisions of their charter."

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[1] For a complete synopsis of the prepositions, and a list giving the proper ones to be used with certain words, see Mr. Loomis D. Campbell's excellent "Handbook of Synonyms and Prepositions."

"His residence is *on* [in] Berkeley Street, and his office *on* [in] State Street.

"He conceived a plan for enlivening the courage of the company, a little dashed of late *with* [by] misgivings and forebodings."

"But codfish must still be had for the faithful *on* [in] Lent and [on] fast days."

"And there on dry sands half hidden *with* [by] the tufted wire-grass," etc.

"The indolent child is one that has a strong aversion *from* [to] action of any sort."

"Nouns thus circumstanced are said to be in apposition *to* [with] each other." — *Murray's Grammar.*

"The goods were generally delivered *on to* [upon] railroad cars, but sometimes upon wagons sent by purchasers."

"A personal friend of the king, *from* [with] whom he had the misfortune to differ in religious opinion."

"He estimated the value of wheat compared *to* [with] silver to have been enhanced."

"She assumed a tone in their intercourse most flatteringly dissimilar *from* [to] that of the other pupils."

"In general there is a great difference *of* [in] persons *in* [as to] sensibility to this influence."

"When Israel of the Lord beloved
Out *of* [from] the land of bondage came."

§ 90. *Between* can be properly used only in relation to *two* subjects, either of which, however, may be plural; where more than two are spoken of, *among* must be used, and should be substituted for *between* in the following examples: —

"The courts will not recognize the association, either as *between* its members or against third parties."

"The court fully recognized the general rule of law, that the contract *between* the members of a corporation cannot be altered by the majority."

"We regard their interaction as taking place *between* a series of psychical functions, rather than *between* logical conceptions."

But we use the expression "read between the lines," and the farmer "ploughs between the rows of corn."

§ 91. Prepositions are often omitted which are necessary to the correct grammatical construction of the sentence. E. g.: —

"This would have been less worthy [of] notice."

"It was of about forty feet [in] diameter at the base, and of about twelve feet [in] altitude."

"Then he brought me back [by] the way of the gate of the outward sanctuary."

"The army must of necessity be the school, not of honor, but [of] effeminacy."

"I might be excused [from] taking any more notice of it."

"Watch, therefore, for ye know not [at] what hour your Lord doth come."

"The laws of the censors have banished him [from] the forum."

"The act creating military settlements was passed [in] the same year, and it is still in force."

"Washington was inaugurated President [on] April 30, 1789, and retired to private life [on] March 4, 1797."

"They stimulate the organization both of the mollusk and [of] the creatures which form its food."

Where three or more words in the objective case in the same construction require the same preposition, the preposition, if repeated at all, must be used in every case; as,

"Simple sensations are said to be distinguished in quality, [in] intensity, and in time."

"We may have a feeling of innocence or of guilt, of merit or [of] demerit."

"She has been assisted by Miss Smith, Miss Brown, and *by* Miss Robinson, as well as by Messrs. Jones and Thompson." (Omit the Italicized *by*.)

§ 92. Prepositions are often inserted needlessly, especially by the older English writers. In the following

examples the Italicized prepositions are erroneously interposed: —

"And the apostles and elders came together *for* to consider of this matter."

"This first emotion comes at last to be awakened by the accidental, instead of *by* the necessary antecedent."

"Notwithstanding *of* the numerous panegyrics on the ancient English liberty."

"I will encounter *with* Andronicus."

Inserting *of* after *all*, before a word already governed by another preposition, is especially common; as,

"During all *of* this period, the same forces were at work."

"He was informed of all *of* the conditions of the agreement."

"In all *of* these cases, the mind works by methods of its own invention."

§ 93. Double prepositions are often used where but a single one is necessary; as, *off of*, *on to*, *up above*, etc. E. g.: —

"The wall with the fence on top extended *up above* the tops of the first-story windows." (Omit *up*.)

"Its stock then sold at par, and occasionally, *at about* that time, at a small premium." (Omit *at*.)

"Leap *in* with me *into* this angry flood."

The expressions *from hence*, *from thence*, *from whence*, are frequently used; but as the adverbs *hence*, *thence*, and *whence* include the idea of *from*, the expressions are tautologous.

CHAPTER XIX.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

§ 94. In a sentence containing two or more words, or two or more clauses, each of which requires a different particle properly to connect it with the conclusion of the sentence, the appropriate connecting particle must be used after each word or clause. The violation of this rule is one of the most common, and one of the grossest, sins against English grammar. In the following examples, the words inserted in brackets are necessary to make the sense complete. E. g.: —

"So he, as much [as], and perhaps more than, any of his townsmen, feels the burden of heavy taxes. Thus we see that it is not a few, but all, [of] the people who must bear the burden."

"Beak about the length [of], or a little longer [than], and twice as broad as the cuspidate scale." — *Botany.*

"Those shares were purchased by a person who had been instructed to bid as high [as], but no higher than, forty dollars per share."

"He has made alterations [in] and additions to the work."

"The first proposal was essentially different [from] and inferior to the second."

"Will it be urged that the four Gospels are as old [as] or even older than tradition?"

"He was more beloved [than], but not so much admired as Cynthia."

"He was guided by interests always different [from], sometimes contrary to, those of the community."

"So far as these are private property, the State has the same power [as], and no greater than, over other private property."

§ 95. "Elegance prohibits an arrangement that throws the emphasis *on*, and thus causes a suspension of the sense *at*, a particle or other unimportant word (as in this sentence)." [1]

"This, whether in the familiar or the solemn style, is always inelegant, and should generally be avoided. In forms of law, and the like, where fulness and exactness of expression must take place of every other consideration, it may be admitted." [2]

In accordance with this principle, the foregoing sentence from Hill's Rhetoric should be transposed as follows: —

"Elegance prohibits an arrangement of the sentence that throws the emphasis on a particle, or other unimportant word, and there causes a suspension of the sense."

The examples in the preceding section would all be improved, therefore, if likewise transposed: —

"So he as much as any of his townsmen feels the burden of heavy taxes, and perhaps more so. Thus we see that it is not a few of the people who must bear this burden, but all of them."

"Beak about the length of the cuspidate scale, or a little longer, and twice as broad."

"Those shares were purchased by a person who had been instructed to bid as high as forty dollars per share, but no higher."

"He has made alterations in the work, and additions to it."

"Will it be urged that the four Gospels are older than tradition, or even as old?"

"He was more beloved than Cynthia, but not so much admired."

"He was guided by interests always different from those of the community, and sometimes contrary to them."

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[1] Hill's Principles of Rhetoric, page 139.

[2] Murray's Grammar, under Rule XVII.

CHAPTER XX.

TAUTOLOGICAL AND SUPERFLUOUS WORDS.

§ 96. The use of superfluous words, or of words which are either implied in another word already used or in the sentence itself, is very general. "There are," or "There is," is especially common at the beginning of a sentence where it is useless or worse than useless; still there are cases where it gives a special emphasis to a statement or a remark. The Italicized words in the following sentences are all tautological or redundant, and should be omitted:—

"We usually walked ahead of the canoes, wading from one side of the stream to the other, *and back*, according as either shore offered the better footing."

"One leg of his trousers had become badly tattered, and, the other being little better, he had cut *them* both off at the knee."

"Give me both *of* those books."

"My brother called on me, and we *both* took a walk."

"Our actual life compels us to connect these ideas *together* very often."

"They invited me to enter *in*."

"He combined these facts *together*."

"Still higher up, in a recess, *there* were remains of similar steps, but not in a *straight* line with the lower ones."

"There are on it now many rabbits and snakes, and in some places *there are now* fields of maize; and on the top *there* is a small, ancient temple."

"The skulls lay *alone* by themselves, and no other bones nor any other objects were *along* with them."

"The discriminated objects are set apart *by themselves*."

"He had the candor to abandon at once his position when *he was* convinced that he was in error."

"At the extreme northern point *there* towers aloft the peak of Mt. Athos."

"*There are* certain features of monastic life *which* are common to all the monasteries."

"A settlement of considerable proportions had grown up about *and around* it."

"The government could show the entire history of the fraud perpetrated, from the *first* conception of the scheme to its *final* consummation. . . . It is apparent from these letters that the accused had combined *together* to carry out the fraud."

"I shall have finished by the *latter* end of the week."

"They sought him throughout the *whole* country."

"Greenhouse men *much* prefer to sow seeds in January rather than in December."

§ 97. The prefix *re* of itself in many words indicates repetition or iteration, and such words are often redundantly used with another word signifying the same thing. E. g.: —

"There is not the slightest ground for supposing it ever reappears *again*."

"We are in danger of repeating *again* the old folly of dividing our people into two hostile camps."

"Returning *again* to the subject of our discussion."

"They returned *back again* to the city *from* whence they came *forth*."

"Whether he can recover *back* the sum thus paid is not the question before us."

"Return *again*, and take an oath with thee."

"He restored it *back* to the owner."

§ 98. The expressions *fill full* and *fill up* are likewise redundant; as,

"Fill a basin *full of* [with] water."

"*Fill* a glass half *full* of wine." (Say, "Half fill a glass with wine.")

"Fill *up* the pit with stones."

"The barn was filled *full* of hay."

"The canal was filled *up* to the level of the surrounding surface."

§ 99. So the expression *have got* is frequently used as in the following examples, where *got* is superfluous: —

"I have *got* a cold."

"They have *got* an excellent assortment of silks at their establishment."

"I have *got* to leave for Washington this evening."

In the following examples, however, the "have got" is correct: —

"I have got a better education than you have, because I have worked harder for it."

"Who can say, 'I have got through learning my mother tongue, and my work is done'?"

§ 100. A great many tautological expressions are in common use, the absurdity of some of which is very evident; in others, however, it is not quite so obvious, from their great familiarity. E. g.: —

"Rules and regulations," "prominent and leading citizens," "usual and ordinary occurrence," "bold and audacious robbery," "a man of truth and veracity," "sylvan forest," "false misrepresentations," "subject matter," "trifling minutiæ," "meet together," "follow after," "most unbounded," "very incessant."

For the use of *reason* with *because*, see *ante*, § 84.

For double prepositions, etc., see *ante*, § 93.

CHAPTER XXI.

MISCELLANEOUS WORDS AND PHRASES.

THIS chapter contains remarks on some words and phrases which have not been mentioned in the foregoing pages, but which require notice on account of their misuse or abuse, or for other reasons. They are given without regard to order or subject.

Employé *for* **Employee.** — The absurd use of the French *employé* for the clear and correct English *employee* is one of the most wonderful perversities of the American press. Webster's Dictionary, in the edition of 1864, under the word *employé*, says: "The word *employee*, though perfectly conformable to analogy, and therefore perfectly legitimate, is not sanctioned by good writers." Mr. Bryant, however, long ago, when editor of the New York Evening Post, disallowed the use of the French *employé*, and of the whole class of French words, *rôle*, *début*, *artiste*, *cortège*, etc.,[1] so constantly used, for which we have perfect English equivalents. The reason why English writers did not use *employee* undoubtedly is that employees were always termed ser-

[1] This proclivity of newspaper writers to use French words of the meaning of which they have a very vague idea is shown in a paper published in one of our New England cities, which said, not very long ago, "At the Mayor's *levée* last evening, all the *éclat* of the city were present," — undoubtedly meaning *élite*. Another paper a short time since spoke of a strike among the "female *employés*" in a certain establishment.

vants or laborers. But at the present time there is an absolute necessity for the word, which would justify its coinage, if it did not already exist. It is the proper and necessary correlative of *employer*, and is just as correct as are *payee*, *indorsee*, *assignee*, and other words of the same class. It is given in the Supplement to Worcester's Dictionary, published five years ago, is used by the judges of our Supreme Court in the Massachusetts Reports, is found in many law books, and is in constant use by many of our best newspapers, like the New York Nation and the Boston Evening Transcript. There is no objection whatever to *employee* which does not apply equally to *employé* (especially when printed without the final *é*). One wiseacre proposes to substitute *workman*. But the word *employee* is far more comprehensive, can be used for every grade of employment, from the agent of a corporation down, and applies to persons of any age or of either sex. The antipathy which some people have had to the word is astonishing. There is no reason, however, why Americans at least should not use it.

Débris. — This is one of the few French words which have no English equivalent, and it should be adopted into the language as a necessity. In that case it might properly be written *debris*, without the accent, like *depot* and *fete*.

Allude. — This is perhaps the most misused word in the language at the present day. Its only proper signification is to refer to a person or thing without actually mentioning the name, — to hint at. Yet we often read of a speech in which it is said that the speaker *alluded* to several subjects, when in fact they

constituted its whole substance. In a report from a branch of a collegiate institution, the writer states of certain matters that they have been alluded to in former reports, when in fact they had been elaborately discussed. A recent writer says, "And here it is proper to allude to a method which has recently been adopted"; and then goes on to give a full and elaborate account of it. There is hardly a newspaper printed without similar misuse of this word.

Drive *or* **Ride.** — The English custom of using *ride* exclusively for riding on horseback, and *drive* for riding in a carriage, is the fashion in England, and undoubtedly correct enough because the fashion there. This is not New England usage, however, and is not warranted by our Dictionaries. Where a person does actually *drive*, it is proper to say that he takes a drive; but a person who goes with him does not *drive*, but *rides*. No one says he *drives* when he rides in a street car or a railroad car, and neither does he drive when he rides in a closed carriage. A farmer may say, "I will drive you to the railroad station," as he intends actually to drive; but if he should overtake you walking on the road, he would ask you to ride, and not to drive.

Oh! *and* **O.** — *Oh!* is properly an interjection only of surprise, pain, grief, sorrow, or anxiety. It was formerly employed also for the expression of a wish, and is so used in our versions of the Bible; but the best modern writers generally reject this last usage of the word, and employ only *O* for that purpose. This distinction is made by Professors Crosby and Goodwin, by Goold Brown, and by Prof. W. D. Whitney, in their Grammars, and by most of the best authors.

O is used for the sign of address, or the vocative case; for the expression of a wish; to introduce an exclamatory phrase; and also, colloquially, as an unmeaning introduction or addition to a sentence, where it might be omitted without at all affecting the sense.

Oh! requires the exclamation point immediately after it, but *O* never should have it.

The following are correct examples of the use of both words: —

"But oh! as to embrace me she inclined, I waked." — *Milton.*

"But she is in her grave, and oh!
The difference to me!" — *Wordsworth.*

"Oh! I am spoiled, undone by villains." — *Othello.*

"Oh! I die, Horatio." — *Hamlet.*

"How amiable thou art, O virtue!"

"O for a lodge in some vast wilderness,
Some boundless contiguity of shade." — *Cowper.*

"O for the voice of that wild horn,
On Fontarabian echos borne!" — *Scott.*

"O that this too, too solid flesh would melt,
Thaw, and resolve itself into a dew!" — *Hamlet.*

"I hope we have reformed that indifferently with us. — O, reform it altogether." — *Hamlet.*

"Remuneration! O, that's the Latin word for three farthings." — *Love's Labor Lost.*

"Catch, then, O, catch the transient hour,
Improve each moment as it flies." — *Johnson.*

Mistake. — Although the use of this verb in phrases like "You are mistaken," "I was mistaken," etc., is given in the Dictionaries of Worcester, Webster, and Richardson, as having two precisely opposite meanings; yet, as precision should always be preferred, it is better to limit words to their primary signification, and say, "You mistake," and "I mistook," when that is what is intended.

Mistaken, however, as an adjective, is unobjectionable, and the authority for it is abundant. We find expressions like "mistaken ideas," "mistaken reports," etc., used by standard writers; and the hymn beginning,

"Mistaken souls, who dream of heaven,"

is well known.

No mistake, for *without fail*, *certainly*, is a slang phrase, used colloquially, but not often seen in print.

Farther *and* **Further.** — Although these words are used indiscriminately by many writers, yet *farther* is more appropriately applicable to distance only; while *further* is used in the sense of something to come, moreover; as, "I will say further," etc.

Jeopardize. — This is a useless neologism for the old English *jeopard*. We might as well use *hazardize* for *hazard*.

Almost no *or* **nothing.** — "'The Duke of Sutherland has got *almost no* rent for his salmon fisheries for the last four years.' The writer should have said *scarcely any rent*."[1] "His wages for that period were *almost nothing*." Say "scarcely anything."

Elder *and* **Older.** — "*Elder* and *eldest* are applied to persons, and, according to the best usage, only in comparing members of the same family, thus: 'An elder brother'; 'the eldest sister.' But *older* and *oldest* are applied to persons of different families, and also to things. Hence we say, 'Franklin was older than Washington'; 'Harvard is the oldest college in the United States.'"[2]

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[1] Peabody's Conversation, p. 138.

[2] Ibid., p. 112.

Had. — "*Had as lief, had better, had best, had like, had as good, had rather*, are sometimes criticised; but they are idioms which have been in use from early times, and are abundantly supported by the best authorities. *Would as lief* and *would rather* are also used by good writers."[1]

Than whom. — It is generally admitted at the present time that usage has sanctioned this expression as good English, and it has been used by many standard writers besides Milton.

Transpire. — This word in the sense of *to happen, come to pass*, is very common both in America and England, but is condemned by all good authority. The true meaning of the word, according to Webster, is: "1. To exhale; to pass off in insensible perspiration; as, 'Fluids transpire from the human body.' 2. To escape from secrecy; to become public; as, 'The proceedings of the council have not yet transpired.'"

Quantity *for* **Number.** — In speaking of a collection or mass, we should use *quantity;* but in speaking of individual objects, we must use the word *number.* "A quantity of wheat," or "a quantity of wood," is correct, but "a *quantity* of books," or "a *quantity* of birds," is wrong.

Peas, Pease. — *Peas* is used for seeds or plants of the pea, when spoken of by number; *pease*, for the seeds in bulk, or by quantity.

Taste of, Smell of. — The *of* in these expressions is redundant, and should not be used. We taste a thing, or smell a thing, but do not taste or smell *of* it.

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[1] Tweed's Grammar, p. 106.

Differ from *or* **with.** — Worcester says, "Differ *with* a person in opinion; *from* a person or thing in some quality"; and this distinction is made by many of the best writers. But there is good authority for "differ from" in opinion, and its use must be left to individual taste.

Different to. — This form is very often used nowadays for *different from;* but it is a decided vulgarism, and should not be tolerated.

Different than. — This is another expression for *different from,* as bad as the foregoing. E. g.: "The paper has become the organ of different men *than* [from] those who once determined its policy."

Graduated *or* **was graduated.** — A fashion is very prevalent of using the latter of these two forms in speaking of a graduate of a university or college. Why, it is hard to say, as *graduate* as an intransitive verb is given in all the Dictionaries. "He graduated at Oxford." — Todd.

Brothers, Brethren. — *Brothers* is used for male children of the same parent; *brethren* is now used only for members of a religious or charitable body.

Learn *for* **Teach.** — This error is very common among children and unlettered people. To *teach* is to instruct; to *learn,* to receive instruction. "I shall be glad to learn, if you will teach me."

Relative. — This word is much better than *relation* to express kindred, and is now commonly used.

Meter *and* **Gram.** — Although orthography does not come within the province of this work, attention is called to the discrepancy in spelling *metre, millimetre,*

and other measures of the metric system, in close connection with *diameter*, *thermometer*, *barometer*, or with *hexameter*, *dimeter*, etc., all derived from the same Greek word. It is altogether better to spell the primitive word, and all the French terms of the metric system, in accordance with the great number of other compound words made from it which have the termination *er*.

The same reasoning applies to *gram*, from which we have *anagram*, *monogram*, *diagram*, *telegram*, and the metric system weights, which should be spelled *milligram*, *kilogram*, etc. The only other word belonging to this class not so spelled is *programme*, and this should be written *program*, which is an old English word, long since introduced, and now used by many writers.

APPENDIX I.

FORMATION OF THE PLURAL.

1. THE regular plural of nouns is formed by the addition of *s* to the singular; as,

book, books;	Nero, Neros;	motto, mottos;	rabbi, rabbis;
eye, eyes;	halo, halos;	handful, handfuls;	muff, muffs;
straw, straws;	hero, heros;	alkali, alkalis;	proof, proofs;
pen, pens;	folio, folios;	Miami, Miamis;	strife, strifes.

2. If the singular ends with *s*, *sh*, *ch* soft, or *x*, the plural is formed by the addition of *es*, and makes an additional syllable; as,

omnibus, omnibuses;	lash, lashes;	fox, foxes;
mass, masses;	church, churches;	James, Jameses.

3. Monosyllables ending in *o* also form the plural by adding *es*, except when the *o* is preceded by another vowel, when *s* alone is added; as,

no, noes;	wo, woes;	two, twos.

4. Nouns ending in *y* preceded by a consonant or by *qu* form the plural by changing *y* into *ies;* as,

lady, ladies; mercy, mercies; body, bodies; colloquy, colloquies.

But if the *y* is preceded by a vowel, *s* only is added for the plural; as,

boy, boys;	day, days;	valley, valleys;	*but* ay, ayes.

Proper names ending in *y* simply add *s* for the plural; as,

Henry, Henrys;	Tully, Tullys;
Willoughby, Willoughbys;	Ptolemy, Ptolemys.

5. The third person singular of verbs is formed from the first person singular, in accordance with the foregoing rules. E. g.:—

ride, rides;	push, pushes;	woo, woos;
make, makes;	march, marches;	comply, complies;
break, breaks;	annex, annexes;	pray, prays;
echo, echos;	do, does;	buy, buys;
profess, professes;	go, goes;	buoy, buoys.

Compounds of *do* and *go* follow the rule for the primitive word; as,

forego, foregoes;	overdo, overdoes;
undergo, undergoes;	undo, undoes.

6. The reasons for the foregoing changes in the rules for the formation of the plural as they have heretofore been laid down, are explained in the following communication to the Boston Evening Transcript:—

"To the Editor of the Transcript:—

"There are some practical reforms which can still be made in English by the dropping of useless silent letters. Many such reforms have already been made within the past fifty years, as the dropping of the useless silent *u* in words ending in *our*, and the *e* after *dg* in words like *abridgment* and *judgment*, both of which reforms are now universally accepted in America. Both for simplicity and uniformity I propose that the useless *e* in forming the plural of nouns ending in *i* and *o*, and also the third person singular of verbs of like ending, be dropped in all words except monosyllables. Words like *no*, *wo*, *go*, and *do* would look very awkward if written without the *es* as a termination. But the omission of *e* in all such words of more than one syllable would hardly be noticed, and I will venture to say that, with respect to more than half of the words ending in *o*, no

one can say without looking into the dictionary how the plural should be written.

"Of nouns ending in *i*, the more common are mainly Oriental, chiefly Arabic, or else the names of Indian tribes or nations, like Abnakis, Miamis, Mississippis, the plurals of which are now almost always written without the *e*. The most common noun ending in *i* is *alkali*, an Arabic word. Other such words are *cadi*, *mufti*, *maravedi*, and *rabbi*, all of which are as often written without the *e* in the plural as with it.

"As to words ending in *o*, the discrepancies are still more perplexing. Thus, *memento*, *canto*, *grotto*, *piano*, and many others, take simply an *s* for the plural; while *motto*, *mosquito*, *volcano*, and many more, without any apparent reason, take *es* in the plural. Now I respectfully submit that the useless and perplexing *e* be dropped in forming the plural of the whole list of words ending with *i* and *o*, except in monosyllables. It can make no difference with the pronunciation, and will relieve the writer and printer from all doubt as to the correct spelling, by simply extending the regular rule for the formation of the plural to all this large class of words.

"Cambridge, March 15, 1886."

This change has received the commendation of Rev. A. P. Peabody and Prof. F. W. Child of Harvard University, of Prof. W. D. Whitney of Yale College, of Mr. W. J. Rolfe, the editor of Shakespeare, and of other scholars. Prof. J. P. Cooke has also adopted the spelling of *alkalis* in his recently published text-book, "Descriptive List of Chemical Experiments."

7. The following nouns ending in *f* or *fe* form the plural by changing the *f* or *fe* into *ves*, viz. *beef*, *calf*,

elf, half, knife, leaf, life, loaf, self, sheaf, shelf, wharf, wife, and *wolf;* as,

calf, calves; knife, knives; wolf, wolves; wharf, wharves. *Staff* is usually written *staves* in the plural. All other nouns ending in *f, fe,* or *ff* form the plural regularly.

8. The plural of the following words is made by changing the vowel sound of the singular; as,

man, men; woman, women; foot, feet; tooth, teeth.
brother, brethren[1]; goose, geese; louse, lice; mouse, mice.

Compounds of these words form the plural in the same way; as,

foeman, foemen; needlewoman, needlewomen.
Northman, Northmen. dormouse, dormice.

But the syllable *man* at the end of a word does not always follow this rule; as,

German, Germans; Mussulman, Mussulmans;
Norman, Normans; talisman, talismans.

The plural of *ox* is *oxen;* of *child, children.*

9. Many words derived from the classical or other foreign languages retain the plural form of the language from which they are taken. But many of them have also the regular English plural; as,

focus, foci; larva, larvæ; hypothesis, hypotheses;
radius, radii; crisis, crises; criterion, criteria;
genus, genera; matrix, matrices; phenomenon, -nomena;
formula, formulæ *or* formulas; stigma, stigmata *or* stigmas;
memorandum, -da *or* -dums; appendix, -dices *or* -dixes;
beau, beaux *or* beaus; bandit, banditti *or* bandits;
cherub, cherubim *or* cherubs; seraph, seraphim *or* seraphs.

10. In abbreviating measures of capacity, weight, distance, or time, it is unnecessary to add an *s* for the plural; as, *gal.* for gallon or gallons; *lb.* for pound or pounds; *yd.* for yard or yards; *yr.* for year or years.

[1] See *ante,* page 87.

APPENDIX II.

COMPOUND WORDS.

1. Words should not be compounded where separate words will convey the signification just as well; and separate simple words should always be united when they are in common use, and when the words themselves are accented as single words.

2. The number of words formerly compounded, or written as two words, which are now generally written as one, is large and constantly increasing; as,

railroad, steamboat, slaveholder, byword, anything, anybody, everything, everybody,[1] roughhew, heartache, raindrop, teardrop, nowadays, forever, forevermore.

3. So, many words which are now frequently seen compounded, or written as two words, may be found written as one by Spenser, Shakespeare, Milton, or other old authors, and should now be so written; as,

wellnigh, erelong, bygone, alehouse, schoolboy, spellbound, awestruck, downtrodden, selfsame.

4. Where a noun is used as an adjective, a useless compound word should not be made; as,

mountain top, Sunday school, supper table, slave trade, coffee trade, minute hand, multiplication table, journeyman printer, peasant woman, cabbage leaf, sister city, brother minister, apple tree, fellow student.

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[1] Many people even go so far now as to write *any one* and *every one* as single words. But these are just as distinctly pronounced and accented as two words as *any man* and *every man*.

5. The following adjectives and nouns, as well as many others, are sometimes needlessly compounded: —

common law, law merchant, common sense, ill health, good will, free will, grand jury, North American (Review), New York (Directory), South Boston (Bridge), Washington Street (omnibus).

Also phrases like the following: —

good by, good morning, ever to be remembered (event), well laid out (grounds), long looked for (return), inside out, uncalled for (remarks), by and by, attorney at law, the pulling down, the carrying away, the blotting out, etc.

6. The following rules are given for various classes of words, in accordance with these general principles.

7. Titles like the following are compounded: —

ex-president, ex-governor, rear-admiral, vice-president, vice-chancellor, etc.; *but* viceroy, vicegerent, are single words.

Titles like the following are often compounded, but are as frequently, and better, written as two words: —

chief justice, attorney general, governor general, solicitor general, lieutenant colonel, second lieutenant, etc.

8. Words expressing kindred are compounded; as,

step-mother, step-daughter, etc., great-grandfather, great-grandson, etc., grand-uncle, grand-aunt or great-aunt, etc.

But the hyphen is needless in others, which are frequently compounded; as,

father in law, brother in law, son in law, etc., cousin german, second cousin, etc., foster brother, foster son, etc.

9. The following points of the compass should be written as single words: —

northeast, northwest, southeast, southwest.

But the following are compounded: —

north-northeast, west-southwest, etc.

10. Fractions like the following, when written out, should not be compounded: —

one half, two thirds, five eighths, ten thousandths.

Another class are compounded as follows: —

one twenty-fifth, forty-nine fiftieths, ninety-nine hundredths, thirteen ten-thousandths, etc.

Numbers like the following are also compounded: —

twenty-five, forty-nine, twenty-fifth, forty-second, etc.

11. Compounds of *half* or *quarter* (whether a fraction or from *quarters*) like the following are usually printed with a hyphen: —

half-dollar, half-crown, half-barrel, half-way, half-past, half-witted, half-yearly, half-price, quarter-barrel, quarter-day, quarter-face, quarter-deck, etc.; *but* quartermaster.

12. The words *fold*, *score*, *penny*, and *pence*, united with numbers of one syllable, are written as single words; but with numbers of more than one syllable they are compounded or written as two words: —

twofold, tenfold, twenty-fold, hundred-fold, two hundred-fold; fourscore, twenty score, a hundred score; halfpenny, twopenny, tenpenny, halfpence, fourpence, tenpence, fifteen-penny, fifteen pence.

13. Ordinal numbers compounded with the word *rate* or *hand* are usually written with a hyphen; as,

first-rate, fifth-rate; second-hand, fourth-hand, etc.

14. Numerals are compounded with words of various meaning, which explain themselves: —

one-eyed, one-armed, two-handed, two-headed, three-legged, four-story, four-footed, etc.

Numerals are also combined with a noun to form an adjective as follows: —

two-foot rule, ten-mile run, one-horse chaise, twenty-foot pole, etc.

15. Compound nouns ending with *man* or *woman* are written as one word; as,

Englishman, workman, oysterman, goodman; needlewoman, Frenchwoman, marketwoman, etc.

16. Compounds ending with *holder*, *monger*, are usually written as one word; as,

bondholder, stockholder, landholder, slaveholder; borough-monger, cheesemonger, ironmonger.

17. Compounds ending with *boat*, *book*, *drop*, *light*, *house*, *room*, *side*, or *yard* are made single words if the first part of the compound is of only one syllable, but are joined by a hyphen if it is of more than one, or written as two words; as,

longboat, sailboat, canal-boat; handbook, daybook, common-place-book; dewdrop, raindrop, water-drop; daylight, sunlight, candle-light; alehouse, boathouse, warehouse, greenhouse, meeting-house, dwelling-house; bedroom, greenroom, (*also* anteroom,) dining-room, dressing-room; bedside, fireside, hillside, river-side, mountain-side; churchyard, farmyard, courtyard, timber-yard, marble-yard.

18. Compounds ending with *work* are usually written as single words, unless the combination is unusual; as,

groundwork, network, framework, needlework, brickwork, ironwork, stonework; *but* mason-work, carpenter-work.

19. Compounds of *tree*, *leaf*, and *bush* are frequently made; but this seems unnecessary. Such words are always printed separately in the Oxford Bibles.

20. Compounds ending with *like* are written as one word, unless derived from a proper name, or unusual combinations, when they take the hyphen; as,

childlike, lifelike, womanlike, workmanlike, fishlike; Argus-like, Bedouin-like, business-like, miniature-like.

21. Compounds beginning with *eye* are written as one word; as,

eyelash, eyebrow, eyeglass, eyewitness.

22. Compounds beginning with *school* are written as one word, except when made with a participle (school-bred, school-teaching); as,

schoolboy, schoolmate, schoolfellow, schooldame, schoolhouse, schoolmaster, schoolmistress.

But the following are better as separate words: —

school days, school district, school committee, school teacher, school children, etc.

23. The word *fellow* is frequently compounded with another noun, as *fellow-citizen*, *fellow-traveller*, etc.; but there seems to be no better reason for this than for compounding any of the pairs of words given in paragraph 4, above.

24. Compounds of a noun in the possessive case with another noun, and having a peculiar signification, are not infrequent; as,

bird's-eye, king's-evil, crow's-nest, bear's-foot, jew's-harp, etc.

But many like words have become consolidated; as,

beeswax, ratsbane, townspeople, etc.

25. Compounds of a present participle with a noun or adjective are generally connected by the hyphen; as,

printing-office, dining-table, composing-room; good-looking, cloud-compelling, etc.

In a few pages of Shakespeare's Comedy of Errors occur the following compounds of this class: —

"always wind-obeying deep," "well-dealing countrymen," "dark-working sorceress," "soul-killing witches," "fool-begged patience," "sap-consuming winter."

26. Compounds of words expressing color, like *brownish yellow* or *yellowish white*, need not be written with a hyphen; but where a noun is used with an adjective expressing color, the hyphen should be used; as,

lemon-yellow, iron-gray, iron-red, silver-gray, emerald-green; *also*, red-hot.

27. The word *self* is united with numerous words of various parts of speech, forming compounds which

are self-explaining. The hyphen is used in all words beginning with *self*, excepting *selfhood*, *selfsame*, and *selfish* with its derivatives. *Self* is also compounded with pronouns as a termination, and the compound written as one word; as, *himself*, *myself*, *itself*, etc. Some writers use *oneself* for *one's self*, but its use is not well established.

28. Many compound personal epithets are in constant use, which are usually written with a hyphen and explain themselves; as,

light-haired, blue-eyed, sharp-nosed, broad-shouldered, long-legged, etc.

29. Compounds of adverbs like *above*, *ill*, *well*, *so*, (but not of adverbs ending in *ly*,) with a participle or participial adjective, to form an epithet, are sometimes written with a hyphen when they precede the noun they qualify, but it is quite as well to make them separate words in all cases; as,

"the well known author," "the so called spelling reform," "this ill advised proceeding," "the above named parties."

Compound adverbs should be written as single words; as,

meanwhile, awhile, meantime, everywhere, anywhere, forever, forevermore, moreover, howsoever, wheresoever, hereinbefore.

30. Compounds of *all* with an adjective or a participle are very common, and are written with a hyphen; as,

all-conscious, all-wise, all-knowing, all-commanding, all-seeing, all-honored, all-informing, all-mighty (*contracted to* almighty).

31. Compounds made with prefixes are very perplexing as to the use of the hyphen, and are given in the Dictionaries and used by authors both with and with-

out it. Those made from prepositions or adverbs, like *over*, *under*, *after*, *out*, *cross*, or *counter*, with words of one syllable, are generally made one word, and sometimes with words of more than one syllable. But the practice is so variable, and the difference of the Dictionaries so great, that the matter must be left to the taste and discretion of the writer. All words should be consolidated that it is possible to consolidate.

Many of these compounds given in the Dictionaries, however, would be much better written as separate words; as,

under lip, over anxious, over cunning, over burdensome, after age, after part, cross section, cross reference, counter revolution, counter influence.

32. Compounds made from prefixes like *demi*, *semi*, *non*, *sub*, *inter*, *intro*, *intra*, *extra*, etc., or like *deutero*, *electro*, *pseudo*, *sulpho*, *thermo*, etc., are often made and written as single words, although usage is unsettled.

33. Where the prefix *co-*, *re-*, or *pre-* occurs before a word which begins with the vowel of the prefix, or where before a consonant the prefix makes a word similar in form with another of different signification, a hyphen should be used after the prefix; as,

co-operate, co-ordinate, pre-exist, re-examine, re-creation, re-collect, re-formation.

34. It is not claimed that the foregoing rules are perfect, and usage is so variant that it cannot be expected they will be universally adopted, as the matter is dependent on taste as well as custom. But the main point is to make compound words only where they will help the reader to understand the writer's meaning.

APPENDIX III.

SOME TYPOGRAPHICAL MATTERS.

1. **Correcting Proofs.** — In correcting proofs, especially where they are sent to a distance, by mail or otherwise, authors should not use a lead pencil, as the marks are very likely to become illegible. Either ink or a crayon pencil should be used.

2. When a query is made on the proof-sheet, if the author desires the correction to be made, he should erase the ? or *Qy.* If he does not wish the change made, the correction and query should both be distinctly marked through. Queries should *never be rubbed out with an eraser.* This practice gives much trouble to proof-readers, who are at a loss what to do, as the queries often relate to discrepancies in the manuscript, or to other matters which they cannot readily decide. When duplicate proofs are sent to an author, *the one marked by the proof-reader should invariably be returned,* as otherwise errors marked by him may pass without being discovered.

3. **Dates and Numbers.** — A short dash is used between two numbers to represent that they are a series, including the numbers given and all the intervening ones. Also to show that a part of two or more consecutive years is included in a certain term. Also, where dates are given between the 1st of January and the 25th of March from the time of the adoption of

the New Style by the Catholic Church in 1582 to the time of its adoption by the English Parliament in 1752,[1] to show that according to Old Style it is in one year, and according to New Style in the other; as, January 10, 1641–2; March 18, 1724–5.[2]

4. In quoting pages or numbers the full figures should be used; as, pp. 245–253, Nos. 124–129; not 245–53, 124–9. But in giving dates the figures representing the century may be dropped; as, 1634–35, not 1634–5; 1713–15, not 1713–5; 1875–79, not 1875–9; otherwise, it might sometimes appear to stand for a date in Old and New Style.

5. Dates are much better in figures than printed in full, although in legal documents they are written out to prevent mistake, or fraud by the alteration of a figure. It is better to write out the month, either in narrative matter or in the date of a letter, instead of abbreviating; as, the 24th of December, 1880; or, December 24, 1880; instead of Dec. 24, 1880. But where dates are frequent, in statistical or other matter, they may be abbreviated to save space. Write 2d, 3d, not 2nd, 3rd.

6. **Parentheses.** — Parentheses are used to enclose an explanation, authority, definition, reference, translation, or other matter not belonging to the sentence. They are now seldom used except for this purpose.

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[1] On the 16th of March, 27 Eliz. 1584–5, a bill was read the first time, in the House of Lords, entitled "An Act giving her Majesty authority to alter and new make a Calendar, according to the Calendar used in other countries." — *Sir Harris Nicolas.* But the change was not made till the year 1752. The Old Style is still retained in Russia and Greece, and is now twelve days behind the regular calendar.

[2] Sometimes written 172$\frac{4}{5}$, or 1724/5.

7. **Brackets.** — The use of brackets is the same as that of parentheses, but is restricted to interpolations, corrections, notes, or explanations made by authors in quotations from others, or by editors in editing works.

8. **Quotations.** — Marks of quotation (" ") are used to indicate a passage taken from another author, or what is said by a speaker, when it is given in his own words. But the marks are not used when the substance only of a passage is given, or when a speech is not given in the first person. Double marks are generally used for a quotation; but where one quotation occurs within another, single marks are used.

9. In quotations from books or letters, if the quotation is long, it is usual to begin it with a paragraph. If the quotation does not begin a paragraph, none should be made before its close.

10. Every paragraph should have the commencing quotation marks, but no close should be used except at the end of the last-quoted paragraph. If there is a break in the quotation, three or four periods are generally used to indicate the omission.

11. Titles of books, pictures, or newspapers, etc., when formally given, are usually quoted; but where the title of a book is well known, — as the Iliad, the Odyssey, the Æneid, or Paradise Lost, — or is abbreviated, or is frequently repeated, quoting is unnecessary.

12. In quoting stanzas of poetry, the commencing quotation mark should stand *outside* of the stanza, so that the lines themselves will appear precisely as in the original. The mistake should not be made of allowing the quotation marks belonging to the stanza itself to stand *outside* of the lines.

13. The names of vessels are sometimes quoted. But this seems to be quite as unnecessary generally as quoting the names of streets, churches, or anything else; especially in any work where constant repetition of the names of vessels occurs.

14. **Italics.** — All words from foreign languages written with our alphabet which have not been Anglicized should be Italicized whenever they occur in an English sentence. But the common Latin abbreviations e. g., i. e., etc., viz., are as well, or better, printed in Roman. In such phrases as *in loco parentis*, *in statu quo*, etc., the *in* should not be in Roman when the rest of the phrase is Italic, as the *in* is Latin, not English.

15. **Abbreviations.** — In narrative matter very few abbreviations are used in English. Those allowed are titles like Mr., Messrs., Mrs., Dr., Hon., Rev., and honorary degrees and titles, or initial letters indicating membership of a society; as, LL. D., D. D., Esq., Kt., K. C. B., M. P., S. J., A. A. S., etc. The Latin e. g., i. e., viz., and etc. are also very common.

16. Military titles, when frequently occurring, may be properly abbreviated, and also the title Professor. Nothing is gained, however, by abbreviating short titles like Captain or Colonel, although in lists of names they should be so written. A long title like Professor or Major-General should not be written in full when only initials of the name are given.

17. Where sovereigns of a country designated by numbers are mentioned incidentally, the number is usually written in full; as, Henry the Eighth, Louis the Sixteenth. But in works where such names occur often, they may be written with Roman numerals; as Henry VIII., Louis XVI.

18. In printing numbers, round sums are usually spelled out, and numbers smaller than one hundred; but where statistics are given, figures should be used, however small the numbers may be. Sums of money, also, are better given in figures where odd numbers occur, or where dollars and cents are both to be expressed, as they are much more easily apprehended.

19. **Accented Letters.** — The English language has no universally recognized accentual or diacritical marks, except the long (–) and short (⏑), which are never used in general works, and the diæresis (¨). Even this last is used in spelling-books and dictionaries for a purpose totally different from its proper use. All other accents on vowels in English have therefore no fixed meaning; and it is useless for writers to undertake to show by the use of such letters the pronunciation of a foreign word to a mere English reader.

20. **Foreign Names.** — In using French titles before names in English, the barbarism of using an English noun with a French preposition should be avoided; either make both French or both English. Write Duc d'Orléans, or Duke of Orleans; Duc de la Rochefoucauld, or Duke of La Rochefoucauld; Comte d'Artois, or Count of Artois; Duchesse de Perpignan, or Duchess of Perpignan. Not Duke d'Orléans, Duke de la Rochefoucauld, Count d'Artois, Duchess de Perpignan.

21. Names from foreign languages, preceded by a preposition without a title or Christian name, — as *Van* in Dutch, *Von* in German, *De* or *D'* in French, or *Da*, *Della*, or *Di* in Italian, — when given in English, should be written with a capital for the preposition; as, Van Tromp, Von Humboldt, Von Moltke, De Thou, D'Alembert, Da Ponte, Della Crusca, Di Cesnola, etc.

22. The practice of writing the preposition in such names as these with a small letter prevails to some extent. This is not only an innovation on established English custom, but is as much of an absurdity as it would be to write Mr. with a small *m*. If any change is made, the name should be written as a single word, as Vantromp, Dethou.

23. **Indexes.** — The number of books written for instruction published without an index,[1] or with a poor one, is very large; in fact, a book with a good index is an exception. Some indexes are a mere catalogue of the proper names in the book, whether anything is told about the persons named or not, and even when merely occurring in a list of names of no importance whatever. Sometimes an index is merely a transcript of headings in a book, or in a biography a mere list of occurrences in the order of the pages; in either case the table of contents would answer the same purpose.

24. Again, indexes are sometimes made by first giving a name or a subject, and then arranging the items under it alphabetically, without reference to order of subject or to chronology. If possible, this is worse than following the exact order of the book.

25. An index should be made for the purpose of

[1] As an instance of this, Goold Brown's "Grammar of English Grammars" may be mentioned, — a work of over one thousand octavo pages printed in small type and containing an immense amount of valuable information, — which is rendered almost totally useless for reference by its lack of an index. I have sometimes hunted for hours for something I was certain of having seen in the book, and hunted in vain, till by accident I stumbled upon the passage searched for. Bain's "Composition Grammar" likewise has no index, although the fault is partially remedied by an elaborate table of contents.

informing those who consult it what there is in the book relating to the subjects which they may wish to consult it for. In a biography, therefore, the chronological order should be followed; where a biography begins, as is often the case, with a mention of the death of the subject, immediately followed by an account of his birth and early life, it appears somewhat absurd if arranged in that order in the index.

26. Every subject on which there is any information to be given should have a place in the index, and every page mentioned where anything concerning it occurs; so that any one looking for that subject may be able to find all there is in the book in relation to it. Unnecessary inversion should be avoided, and the regular order of words followed as closely as possible.

27. It is impossible to give anything more definite on the subject of indexes. An author or editor ought to know what is important, and make his index accordingly; but keeping in mind that it is not worth while to fill an index with useless references to nothing, and that the bulk of an index is no test of its value.

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